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The American Review of Reviews.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE NEW QUEEN OF THE BELGIANS AND HER CHILDREN

(The most interesting fact connected with the new King of Belgium is his happy family life. His wife, Elizabeth, is one of the daughters of the late Duke Karl Theodor, of Bavaria, famous all over the continent for his skill as an oculist. She is known as one of the most accomplished royal ladies of Europe. They have two bright boys, Prince Leopold, aged nine; Prince Karl, aged seven, and one daughter, Prince Marie-José, who is just four.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

The Past Year,—Discovery

In the stately procession of the years, 1909 has won historical distinctions which must fix its date upon many a future page. The new year, indeed, promises also to make a brave record; but we may well note some things that stand accredited to the vanishing twelvemonth. Man's knowledge of his own planet has made much increase, and his conquest over the forces of nature has advanced with strides. It is not so long ago (1822 and 1823) that Congress was seriously debating the question of appropriating money for an expedition to prove Captain Symmes' theory that the earth was hollow, was inhabited on the inside, and could be entered at the North Pole. Within half a century books have been written to prove that the Garden of Eden was at the "furthest north." For centuries brave navigators and men of science have been pushing toward that coveted and mystic point of mathematical theory where time is not and where all directions are south. Commander Peary's courage and persistence took him to the Pole last April, and the value and meaning of his achievement will but grow clearer as the years advance. It was in the beginning of this past year, also, that Lieutenant Shackleton, of the British Navy, made his discoveries in the Antarctic regions, and approached nearer than any of his predecessors to the South Pole. In many other less striking ways geographical knowledge has made advances during the past year.

Communication by Air and Land

Very notable has been the year's progress in what has come to be called "aviation." Aeroplanes and dirigibles, dating from the year 1909, have taken on a thoroughly practical importance. While wireless telegraphing and telephoning is of earlier date, the use of the wireless at sea has recently had such memorable life-saving demonstrations as to make the year very important in that field of invention, and to justify the announcement last month of the award to Mr. Marconi of a Nobel Prize. While communication by wireless messages and by aerial flight has made gains during the past year, it is true that other forms of communication have also made progress, to the obvious benefit of the

WILLIAM MARCONI

(Who with Prof. Ferdinand Braun, of Strasburg, is winner of the Nobel Prize for Physics)

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TUNNELING THE ANDES TO LINK CHILE WITH ARGENTINA

world's peace and of society's development in desirable ways. Thus there has just been completed the railroad tunnel under the Andes which gives quick connection between Buenos Aires and the Chilean cities of the Pacific Coast, while far to the northward the digging of the Panama Canal has been going on prodigiously. New transcontinental railroad lines have been completed in the United States, and railroad building in Asia is beginning to take on the outlines of a comprehensive scheme. There has been amazing progress in the United States in the good-roads movement, in the use of the automobile for pleasure and as a business convenience, in the extension of telephones, and in all those things that through improved facilities for intercourse and communication make the conditions of life easier in country districts as well as in large towns. The monorail and movable platform are becoming practical.

Art and Civilization

In the story of American civilization the year 1909 deserves a creditable chapter. What the year has done for our progress in art is recounted in this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Knaufft. That it has been a notable year in the history of musical culture in America can be attested by Chicago, Boston, Philadelphia, and other centers, as well as by New York. President Butler's little article written for this magazine last month, under the title "How to Civilize New York," points to ideals that the past year has done some things to realize. Opportunities for research and advancement in scientific and expert knowledge have been strikingly increased. New serums have been tested, new anasthetics have been discovered, the fight against tuberculosis has gone forward with firm steps, and human life is worth appreciably more at the beginning of 1910 than it was when we bade farewell to 1908. Furthermore, as the results of experiment and discovery in the year past, we are in the near future to have some startling announcements of further progress in certain specific fields of disease and suffering.

Our People and Their Welfare

In the year now before us we are to have the decennial counting of our population, and the gathering of many facts about the conditions under which our people are living. During the decade that is ending, we have brought to this country a good many millions of foreigners, most of whom have come from Russia, Austria-Hungary, Italy, and in general from eastern, central, and southern Europe rather

THE NEW BUILDING, APPROACHING COMPLETION AT WASHINGTON, OF THE UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM

than from western Europe. The most amazing fact in this greatest of all world-shiftings of population is the assimilative power of American life. Irish, Germans, and Scandinavians are now almost completely assimilated. The more recent comers not only learn our language and our ways so that they speak and dress and walk the streets like Americans, but they conform themselves with an almost magical and quite inexplicable rapidity to the physical types that are regarded as distinctively our own. These newcomers have massed themselves very largely in our great towns, adding, of course, to the immediate difficulties of civic progress. Yet in spite of tendencies toward overcrowding, we are making advances in our average conditions of health, comfort, and order in city life; and many things during the past year have illustrated this fact. The recent municipal election in New York, not less than things that have happened in Chicago, San Francisco, Boston, and elsewhere, point to better things in the government of our cities, and to more efficient application of means to ends for education, health, and safety in the ordering of life where population masses gather in great towns.

The Economic Basis of Progress

Another year of large average crops, and a swift recovery from the depression following the panic, have given our country an economic basis upon which to erect its finer fabric of civilization that no other country possesses in so great a sum total or with such wide diffusion. To the economist and the financier the year 1909 has been full of interest, although it remains for the present year and its successor to deal with the reform of our banking and currency system, and with those changes in our laws relating to railroads and industrial corporations that are necessary in order that the Government may perform its proper functions with respect to the nation's economic life.

The New Administration

During this past year an observing world has once more looked upon the spectacle of a change in the American national administration. These changes, every four years, come without any shock or tremor. Even those that have been caused by the assassination of three Presidents have shown how firm is the spirit of law and order in this country, and how adaptable are our trained citizens who pass with ease from private to public positions. Nine months of official responsibility has seemed to make the members of Mr. Taft's cabinet veteran statesmen,—even those who have never held public office before. This period has witnessed the passage of a new tariff law which, though far from being a thoroughgoing revision, is accepted by business men as a fixed fact for some years to come. This period has also witnessed definite progress in the great policy of developing our internal waterways, as will be shown in articles appearing elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW. The new President has traveled much, spoken much, and familiarized himself with conditions and sentiment in all parts of the country.

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HON. WILLIAM J CALHOUN OF ILLINOIS

(The new American Minister to China)

Our Outward Relations

In our relations with the world beyond our borders the year that has passed has some things worth their record on the page of political history. At the beginning of the year, for example, we withdrew for the second time from the republic of Cuba, justifying to the utmost a policy that has given that rich island promise of a tranquil and happy future. We have put all our outstanding differences with Canada in the way of adjustment by arbitration. We have entered upon a policy toward the turbulent little jurisdictions of Central America that must, if faithfully pursued, lead to some such calming of those regions as our influence has secured at Panama, in Cuba, in Porto Rico, and in the Philippines. We have taken measures to show to all the leading powers, both of Europe and of Asia, our interest in whatever concerns the commerce of the Pacific Ocean, the future of China, and the evolution of the Far East. Mr. Calhoun, our new Minister to China, is a lawyer of valuable diplomatic experience.

The Crisis in England

For Great Britain and her spheres of political influence the year 1909 has also been memorable. For several centuries England has witnessed the slow but sure crumbling of feudal institutions, as the forces of modern life and of an awakened democracy have made their successive demands. The recent House of Commons, with its great group of Labor members and its enormous Liberal and Radical majority, has been wholly unlike any previous House of Commons since Cromwellian days in its firm attitude of opposition to arbitrary discriminations in favor of the aristocratic and privileged classes. The demands of the famous Lloyd-George budget, in their proposal of a tax on lands and in other respects, would seem to an American or a Frenchman only a reasonable move in the direction of obvious justice. But England is a country whose institutions, while in many respects most admirable and generous in their attitude toward the nation at large, are in other respects monstrously unfair in the privileges they accord to the landed aristocracy as represented by the House of Lords, to the established Church, and to other favored interests. This fight of the centuries for freedom from feudalism has had many historic dates. One of them was the Reform act of 1832. Others came in Mr. Gladstone's time with suffrage extensions, the reform of the Irish Church, and so on. The Liberal budget of the past year, rejected by the House of Lords, seems destined to fix another of these important dates. The opening of this new year 1910 brings a great struggle at the polls to see whether Englishmen at large are sufficiently emancipated to stand for themselves and their children, or are even yet so greatly under the mental, moral, and social thraldom of the feudal and caste system that they prefer to be governed by the House of Lords rather than by their own elected representatives in the Commons.

HON. DAVID LLOYD-GEORGE

From the *Daily Chronicle* (London)

BACK TO THE PEOPLE

From the *Times-Star* (Cincinnati)

Home Rule May Come This Year

If the Liberals come back from the appeal to the country with a working majority they will not only establish the right of the House of Commons to govern the country in essential matters without interference from the Lords, but they will also probably give Home Rule to Ireland at once. In return for this promise of Home Rule they will be able to count upon a working coalition with the Irish Nationalist party; and this ought to make it reasonably certain that the Conservative party, led by Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne, will not be able to secure the strength in the new House necessary to carry on the government. Thus great things are likely to come from the budgetary crisis of 1909, not to mention such admirable social reforms as old age pensions. These problems of internal progress are the real ones for British study. The straining for naval and military predominance in the world is at the sacrifice of England's true welfare.

HON. HERBERT GLADSTONE AND WIFE

(British Home Secretary, who has been appointed to be the first Governor-General of the United States of South Africa)

A New Nation Has Been Born

The year 1909 will constitute a date of cardinal importance for South Africa, inasmuch as it has seen the federation of the British and Boer colonies into the United States of South Africa, with a constitution and a central government,—thus following the examples of the Commonwealth of Australia and the Dominion of Canada. Mr. Herbert Gladstone is to go to South Africa as the governor-general representing the British Empire. On another page we review an expression of Dutch opinion regarding the future language of South Africa. Whether English or Boer-Dutch is to prevail, the Dutch stock will predominate in the new nationality.

Light Breaks in the Dark Continent

The adjustment of the affairs of the Congo Free State (to which allusion is made in another paragraph of this department of our REVIEW, and also in our article upon the late King Leopold of Belgium and his successor) forms another chapter of African history bearing the 1909 date. English influence in Egypt and the Sudan, as well as in East Africa, continues to be exerted for peace and progress, and English opinion has had much to do with securing reform in the Congo State. The Portuguese possessions in Africa are badly ruled; and much attention has lately been called again through British organs of opinion to the outrages practiced under a disguised system of slavery in the production of cocoa on the coasts of Portuguese Africa. President Roosevelt's remarkable articles in *Scribner's Magazine* have engaged the attention of many thousands of readers, and are adding to the popular interest in African geography, population, and natural conditions. It does not seem so long since Stanley was searching for Livingstone, and Africa was mostly an unknown continent. The changes are very rapid since the heroic days of General Gordon, and even since the death of Cecil Rhodes.

French Social Progress

The people of France, for the first time in their history, submitted themselves last year to the political guidance of a Socialist prime minister, M. Briand, about whom we published an article last month. He is a scholarly and gentle Socialist, of statesmanlike caliber and rare gifts of speech and style. The French government is ever more and more in touch with the needs of the people; and its great expenditures for purposes of administration and the general welfare are met out of the thrift of a populace whose ability to earn and to save is unsurpassed. While Germany is far outstripping France in population and magnitude of industrial development, France stands higher now than at any time in her history in the world's admiration and regard.

Germany and Science

The growing power of Germany is, indeed, fortunate for France, because it so lessens the temptation to engage in a war that would probably destroy France unless all Europe became embroiled in the struggle. Germany continues to build ships, constantly protesting her good will toward England and all mankind. Meanwhile Germany also has a new ruler in its Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg, who has come up from the ranks of the common people, while all his predecessors have been of the high nobility. Elsewhere in this number is an article on the growth of Social Democracy in Germany; but the true key to German progress is the application of science to industry, to public administration, and to all the departments of life.

Toward the Balkans

In Southeastern Europe the Emperor Francis Joseph still holds sway with a talent for the exercise of royal power that no other living monarch possesses. Amidst much internal discord the Dual Monarchy has been strengthened by the complete annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina,—Servia having been obliged by the pressure of the great powers to recede from her intention to oppose this transfer at the point of the sword. An impending war between Turkey and Greece was averted late in this last year by joint action of the powers in regulating the status of Crete. It will be remembered that ten years ago Crete had attempted to repudiate Turkish overlordship and become annexed to Greece. As the result of war and tumult Crete remained nominally Turkish, with an administration jointly supervised by several of the great European powers under a governor appointed by the King of Greece. Recent difficulties have resulted in a renewing of the arrangement of ten years ago, so that Crete continues to be technically a part of Turkey, while order is to be maintained by the great powers and Greece is to name the governor.

Moslem Realms in Transition

Last year saw great turbulence in the Mohammedan world, with the result of a change of Sultan in Turkey and a parliament at Constantinople that bids fair to count for something in the direction of modern progress. Changes in Persia have placed a little boy on the throne as Shah, and given the country a new parliament which seems to be a real governing body. There have been fierce uprisings in Morocco, where last year's chapters of history remain unfinished.

Europe at Large

Spain's troubles in Morocco, reacting upon conditions at home, resulted in the death of Ferrer and in the overthrow of a cabinet. Portugal, with her boy king, has shown some signs of awakening to a sense of her laggard place among the states of Europe. Italy bears heavy burdens with good cheer, and Sicily recuperates. The Dutch have rejoiced in the birth of an heir to the throne, and are deeply united in the sentiment of "Netherlands for the Netherlanders." Russia keeps its sad, chastened course of inevitable progress. Scandinavian lands grow richer in civilization. Belgium's new king is a modern type, with promise of useful service.

Great Names of Last Year

The year 1909 was notable for the celebration of the centenaries of a number of famous people, including Abraham Lincoln, William E. Gladstone, Charles Darwin, Edgar Allan Poe, Alfred Tennyson, Mrs. Browning, Mendelssohn, and Chopin. There were also celebrations of historic occurrences as well as of notable personalities. Our obituary records have never in any previous year contained the names of so many celebrities as we find in looking over last year's list. Great is the number of those in the forefront of letters and art who died in the year 1909. Many were the names of statesmen and publicists, captains of industry, inventors, and leaders of thought and public opinion. We are the heirs of their living books, their noble buildings, their pictures and statues, their railroads and established industries, their useful laws, their social reforms, their contributions to science and invention, and their discoveries for the relief of human pain and disease.

The President's Views

President Taft's first regular message to Congress was naturally awaited with much interest and concern. When it appeared there were some surprises, chiefly by reason of expected things left out, though also there were other surprises by reason of wholly unexpected things put in. The subjects which were originally to have had the chief place in the message were omitted altogether, with the promise that they would be presented in additional messages to be sent to Congress in the immediate future. These special messages are to deal with (1) changes in the laws regulating interstate commerce, (2) amendments of the Sherman Anti-Trust law, (3) the conservation of the national resources, and (4) the proposed revision of laws governing army organization in war time. Thus Mr. Taft's formal recommendations to the Sixty-first Congress at its first regular session will comprise these additional documents, as well as that which was made public on December 7. Mr. Taft keeps up the recent fashion of very long messages. His discussion of numerous topics is by way of an address to the country as well as to the law-making chambers. The document as a whole is reassuring and constructive. It fills somewhat less than twelve newspaper columns. The first five of these are devoted to foreign relations and the Department of State. As respects the other departments

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SECRETARY KNOX

(Whose activities in the State Department occupy much of the President's message)

Mr. Taft refers in a complimentary way to the reports of his cabinet officers and proceeds to deal with a topic here and there, disregarding formal departmental epitomes. Nearly two columns are given to matters that relate to government income and outgo and tariff matters. A column is given to army and navy questions, another to matters relating to the Department of Justice, and the remaining two and a half to the Post Office Department, the Interior Department, that of Commerce and Labor, and two or three concluding topics.

Taft on Our Affairs Abroad

So much for the outward structure of the document. Going back to the first section, we find a detailed statement regarding the pending arbitration of our differences between the United States and Great Britain, chiefly relating to fisheries. And next comes information upon the international prize court under the Hague treaty, and recent conferences for codifying international maritime law and promoting uniform legislation concerning letters of exchange. We are informed of improvements in the administration of the Congo State, of European conventions for the better protection of American patents, of our attempt to be of use to Liberia, and of our intention to assist in the conference that is to give the far northern islands of Spitzbergen some political status. Mr. Taft commends the recent progress of the Ottoman Empire, and in turning to Latin America offers congratulation on the settlement by diplomacy of the boundary trouble between Bolivia and Peru. Attention is called to the Pan-American Conference and the International Exhibition, both to be held in the coming summer at Buenos Aires. Mr. Taft's presentation of the Pan-American policy of this Government is generous and sound and will be reassuring throughout Latin-America. A fortunate view is presented of progress in Cuba, and of improved political and economic conditions in Santo Domingo as a result of our handling of the customs revenues. The situation in Nicaragua is stated in a just and lucid way, and it is obvious that President Taft will proceed in that quarter with a view not only to the protection of American interests, but also with a desire for the permanent welfare of Central America. Referring to matters in the far East, Mr. Taft again declares it to be the policy of our Government to support the principles of equality, of opportunity, and of scrupulous respect for the integrity of the Chinese Empire. The reasons for American participation in the Chinese railroad loans are presented with convincing clearness. It is gratifying to be informed of the plans of the Chinese Government for sending students to this country in consequence of our remitting a part of the indemnity fund. It is not less gratifying to be assured of the progress of China toward lessening the opium evil, and of the success of the conference held at our invitation at Shanghai last spring on that subject. There is an agreeable statement to the effect that our Government has a perfect understanding with both China and Japan regarding the much-talked-of treaty relating to mining privileges in Manchuria. Our relations with Japan are pronounced entirely cordial, and we are told that "the arrangement of 1908 for a co-operative control of the coming of laborers to the United States has proved to work satisfactorily." Secretary Knox's reorganization of the Department of State is explained and commended. Our readers have already been told of the plan of special bureaus in the Department to deal

with Latin-American, Far-Eastern, and other especial fields. Explanation is also made of the plan for putting the diplomatic service upon a basis of merit and promotion.

Questions of Revenue

Touching upon financial matters, the President quotes the Secretary of the Treasury as finding that the Government's expenses will exceed its income by $34,000,000 for the year ending with June 30. There will also be $38,000,000 to pay for current work at Panama. It is now believed that the total cost of the Panama Canal will be $375,000,000. Most of the increased expense is due to radical enlargement of the locks and a widening of the canal itself. It is advised that canal expenses be met by bond sales, and it is of course expected that ordinary revenues in the near future will be equal to appropriations. Meanwhile the departments, under the President's advice, have so industriously pruned their estimates as to make possible a saving of, perhaps, $40,000,000, as against the outlays of the current year. Excellent work is going on for a reorganization of Government bureaus with a view to lessening the cost of administration. We are glad to find that Mr. Taft is prepared to recommend a system of civil pensions for the retirement of superannuated civil servants. Taking up the subject of the frauds practiced for the benefit of the Sugar Refining Company and other importers at the New York Custom House, the President advises Congress that a Congressional investigation would be embarrassing while criminal prosecutions are pending. Mr. Taft does not believe that the maximum and minimum clause in the new Tariff act will lead to so-called tariff wars with foreign countries. He expresses hope that the new Tariff Board may be of great service, and declares that if this board finds facts to justify him he will promptly inform Congress of rates that are excessive. Meanwhile he deprecates tariff agitation in advance of carefully collated information.

Other Matters in the Message

The special point emphasized in the mention of army affairs is the radical reduction in the estimates of army expenditure for the next fiscal year. In a similar way Mr. Taft refers to a large reduction in the estimated expenses of the navy. The request for new naval construction is limited to two first-class battleships and one repair vessel. Nothing in the President's message has been received with more favor by the country than his remarks about delays in the administration of civil and criminal law. He asks legislation to authorize the appointment by the President of a commission to advise methods for simplifying federal court procedure. He quotes the injunction clause in the last Republican platform and asks for a law that would prevent the granting of injunctions without previous notice and a reasonable opportunity to be heard, unless for exceptional reasons which are explained. Mr. Taft recommends the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as separate States, but advises care in the preparation of State constitutions. It would seem to us very advisable that the question of admitting these two Territories as States should be postponed until after the completion of this year's census. They have every desirable opportunity for self-government already as Territories, and there is no good reason for haste in allowing them to send four Senators to Washington to govern the rest of the country. They are still in a very early stage of development, with small and scattered population. Reforms in the government of Alaska are very properly recommended. A high compliment is paid to the work of the Department of Agriculture. Reorganizations of bureaus in the Department of Commerce and Labor are recommended. The much-advocated Bureau of Health is supported by Mr. Taft and the reasons for it are convincingly stated.

Subsidies and Savings Banks

As respects our ocean commerce Mr. Taft says: "I earnestly recommend to Congress the consideration and passage of a ship-subsidy bill looking to the establishment of lines between our Atlantic seaboard and the eastern coast of South America, as well as lines from the west coast of the United States to South America, China, Japan, and the Philippines." It is proposed to divert the profits on foreign mails to this purpose. The President also strongly advocates the establishment of a postal savings bank system. He does not see any need of delaying this subject until after the report of the Monetary Commission.

Postal Rates

A recommendation that shows lack of full study advises the increase of postal rates on newspapers, magazines, and periodicals. For a long time second-class matter has been carried at 1 cent a pound. If this is less than

it costs the Government to transport and distribute newspapers and periodicals, it does not necessarily follow that the rate ought to be raised. Within the memory of middle-aged persons postage on newspapers and periodicals was paid by the subscribers at their local post-offices. The change of law requiring advance payment at pound rates by the publishers shifted the burden from the subscribers and was a convenient reform. It is true that printed matter constitutes the large part of the mail carried by the Government. But the periodicals do more to nationalize literature and public opinion than any other one thing. Furthermore, very much of the profitable business of the Post-Office Department grows directly out of the publicity created by newspapers and magazines. Even the direct transactions with the post-office of a publisher are profitable to the Government, inasmuch as the purchases of postage stamps for the carrying on of correspondence with subscribers, and the other postal business of such an establishment, give the Government far more profit than its handling of the magazines at the rate of 1 cent a pound can cause it loss.

Advertising and the Post-Office

Mr. Taft is of opinion that the magazines carry more advertising in proportion to reading matter than the newspapers. This, as it happens, is an entire mistake. But the suggestion gives opportunity to explain that of all the business done by the Post-Office Department the most profitable is the carrying of advertising. Rather than force magazine advertising out of the mails, the Government could better afford to carry it for nothing. The chief object of the reputable business people who patronize the advertising pages of the periodicals is to provoke correspondence. A single advertisement on one page of a periodical has brought to the advertiser seventeen thousand letters. Each one of these letters starts a return patronage of the mails. The actual carrying of that advertisement has cost the Government an infinitesimal sum. The return received by the Government has been the large profit upon the sale of many thousands of 2-cent stamps. It is impossible properly to consider the rate of postage to be charged by the Government on one class of matter without studying the relation of the rates on different classes to one another. Mr. Taft is actuated by a commendable desire to lighten the burdens of the Government and to introduce economies. But as a matter of fact the carrying of newspapers and periodicals is not a burden to the Post-Office Department, and it is a great boon to the intelligent public of America.

Is There a Postal Deficit?

It should be borne in mind that what he calls the deficit in the Post-Office Department is not real. The Post-Office Department is earning a large surplus profit on the business it carries on for its patrons. Even if all publishers and private individuals and firms withdrew their business from the Post-Office Department, the Government would still have its own large distribution of letters and printed material to make for Congress, for the Departments at Washington, and for the official business of several hundred thousand people constituting the civil and military services of the United States. It would probably have to pay from seventy-five to a hundred million dollars a year to carry on its own postal business. Yet the books of the Post-Office Department do not make any account whatsoever of this vast item. It is safe to say that there is no other government in the world whose postal department is not credited with the expense it incurs for handling the business of the other departments. It is a scandal and a public disgrace that business should be done so loosely at Washington that no post-office records are allowed to show what it actually costs to distribute the speeches of congressmen, the documents sent out from the Agricultural and other departments, and the millions of letters relating to Government business. It is just as much a matter of Government expense to transport official documents as to transport troops. The War Department makes record of the cost of transporting troops, but no reports of the Post-Office Department indicate the cost of carrying the Government's own materials.

The Real Burdens

Furthermore, the enormous extension of free rural delivery has added a burden of many millions of dollars to the Post-Office Department without bringing immediate financial returns. Congress ought to have made some direct appropriation for this service. Even if the free rural carriers could be permitted to deliver small parcels for the benefit of the people on their routes, this valuable extension of the service could soon be made almost self-supporting. It is not uninteresting to note the

fact that certain express companies and other private interests are always lobbying at Washington to prevent the passage of such measures as a parcel post for the convenience of the people. And the public may just as well be informed of the fact that these same interests have been busily at work for some years trying to secure an advance in the postal rates on periodicals and newspapers. It only needs statement to make it clear that if magazines and newspapers were thrown out of the mails by prohibitive postal rates certain news companies and express companies might hope to play a larger part in the distribution of such periodicals. The subject is one that Mr. Taft has not taken up as yet at first hand, and in the multiplicity of great topics that have been crowding upon his attention in the opening weeks of his term, it is, perhaps, not strange that he should have been misled in a few matters.

Reform the Post-Office Itself

There is more need in the Post-Office Department of a careful reorganization than in any other branch of the Government. Mr. Taft's idea of driving a wedge between the newspapers and the periodicals of more general circulation seems wrong in principle and is based upon a misunderstanding of the facts. Free delivery within the county is already a great discrimination in favor of newspapers. Furthermore, the cost of handling each individual piece is a more important item than the cost of transportation by the pound. Thus it costs the Government a great deal more to handle a pound of newspapers, consisting of a number of separate papers to be distributed to different people, than to carry a single magazine weighing a pound to one subscriber. Yet Mr. Taft, through misapprehension, states the matter in exactly the opposite way. The magazines are chief producers of the lucrative business of the post-office. Even without revision of the very favorable contracts with the railroads for carrying the mail, and without the other economies that could be brought about by a better business organization of the postal service, there is so large a profit collected by the Government upon all the business that the post-office does for private patrons, including the newspapers and periodicals, that this surplus practically pays the Government's own great bill for carrying and distributing its own mail matter. The magazines and periodicals of this country confessedly surpass in merit those of any other part of the world. Their merit is due to their patronage by a great and intelligent nation spread from the Atlantic to the Pacific. A hostile postal policy such as Mr. Taft proposes would have made impossible the development of such valuable and beautiful expressions of our life as are typified, for example, by the *Century Magazine*. Let the Post-Office Department set its own house in order, give us a balance-sheet of its real transactions as the other departments of the Government do, rid itself of its harmful and extravagant relations to politics and party spoils, and bring a permanent business head to the conduct of its large affairs. Then, if necessary to deal with such delicate questions as radical changes in rates, there will be time enough to discuss them on their merits.

Mr. Ballinger on Control of Water-Power

The recommendations made by Secretary Ballinger in his first annual report are of exceptional interest. We are giving prominence to what the Secretary has said on the subject of water-power control and development upon the national domain. At our request he has stated anew for our readers (see page 47) the features of his water-power policy, and the reasons that lie behind his recommendations. He believes that the use of water-power should be encouraged, but that the Government should retain ultimate ownership and control. His program is even more explicit and complete as regards Government control than that which has been advocated by the leaders in the admirable movement designated by the general word "conservation," that every one should support.

Power in the East and South

The other articles in this number of the REVIEW on water-power and its development are also of unusual importance. Mr. Pressey writes with great knowledge concerning the water-power progress of the Southern States, where the streams falling from the Appalachian uplands toward the sea afford opportunities for a vast industrial progress. It happens that Mr. Pressey is also at the present time connected, as an accomplished expert, with the work of the New York State Commission that is preparing a plan for the comprehensive storage and use of waters in the mountain areas, in order to maintain a summer flow and double the utility of all the developed or available water powers. Our article on this New York program ought to attract wide attention and

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SECRETARY RICHARD A. BALLINGER

stimulate action by the authorities of other States both East and West. In this respect New York has certainly been an example to the entire Union.

Is There a "Power Trust"?

A great deal of discussion has been current in newspapers and periodicals regarding the so-called "power trust" that is said to be buying up all the principal opportunities in the country for water-power development. Some writers are so mysterious and vague in their allusions to this "trust" that the reader who is familiar with practical business affairs might naturally wonder how so large an enterprise could be carried on without a proper name, a business office, or even a post-office address. When some of those who speak of water-power trusts are asked to be specific, they do not seem to know the names of any power companies, nor the geographical location of any water powers, unless it be Niagara Falls. Those more exactly informed point to the General Electric Company and the Westinghouse Company,—both of which manufacture electrical machinery and appliances on a vast scale,—as the chief culprits in this "octopus" game of gathering in all the water-powers.

Some Pertinent Facts

There are certain facts, easily ascertained, that the fair-minded reader ought to understand. In the first place, the development of a large water-power is a very expensive undertaking, usually costing much more than the sum originally estimated, and requiring a long period of waiting before the investment makes return in dividends. Such enterprises cannot properly engage the savings of small investors, nor can they look to the resources of people of wealth who prefer safe and stable opportunities for the use of their capital. The reason why the same names appear in the directorates of a number of different water-power and electric companies is because certain men of large resources have specialized in that kind of business, and have initiated or financed different power enterprises in various parts of the country. To assert that these gentlemen are doing harm rather than good, would seem to us a highly fanciful and quite topsy-turvy way of dealing with the facts. There is hardly any other respect in which capitalists can so much help a particular region directly,—and our country itself indirectly,—as in finding a great water-power running to waste and harnessing it for the purpose of supplying electric light, electric transportation, and the power that operates factories and mills. To do this work is beneficent because it saves the waste of fuel from our coal beds, which are being too rapidly exhausted; of wood from our forests, which are being too rapidly swept away; of petroleum from those hidden reservoirs that are all too soon pumped out,—besides lessening the toil of thousands of men, women, and children, and relieving other thousands of patient horses from the drudgery that was theirs before the electric age. Indeed, it is a work of saving all around.

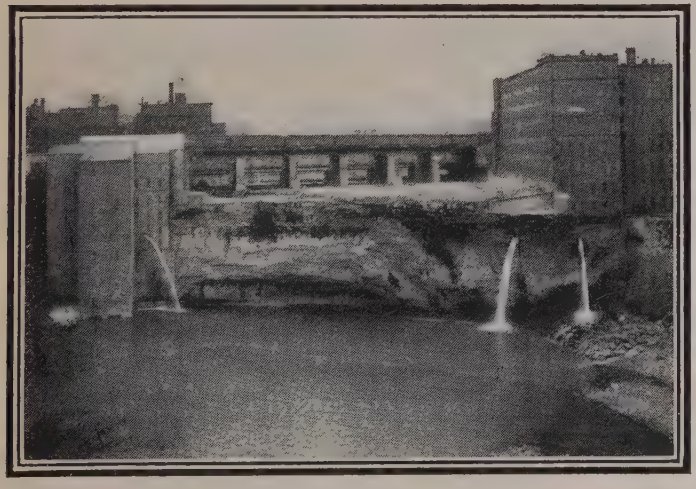
Who Owns the Power Plants?

If the General Electric Company and the Westinghouse Company have become interested in the development of power and electric plants where water can be made to operate dynamos they would seem to us to have been showing commendable enterprise. It would be easy, however, to show that in a good many cases this connection has been reluctant rather than eager. These great companies have had to protect their sales of machinery and supplies by taking part payment in bonds or stocks or by subsequent acquisitions of title due to the inability of local companies to go on with unfinished projects. The Westinghouse Company itself could not escape a receivership in October, 1907,—although perfectly solvent and doing the largest business in its history,—because so many of its customers had paid in stocks and bonds. That these properties were justified by a real public need was later demonstrated, and the receiver was discharged on December 5, 1908. But in the interval the banks had been unwilling to carry the load. When such instances are looked into it will appear that these great companies, and certain bankers and financiers in our large cities, far from having insidiously grabbed the water-powers of a given State or community, have earned the thanks of the localities they have entered by their usefulness in financing and engineering projects that have been of great benefit to the communities within reach of the electric transmission of power. No one can object to inquiries, conducted by the Bureau of Corporations, into the ramifications of water-power control by affiliated corporations or associated groups of capitalists. But we ought in this country to rid ourselves of a very petty and antiquated sort of prejudice against the large way of doing business.

THE UPPER FALLS, ROCHESTER, N. Y.
(Flood waters' wasted energy, which might be stored for summer use)

Where to Find Remedies

Ours is a large country, with a vast development of wealth. This wealth is so massed and specialized that it can bring to pass great and beneficent results. The remedies against the dangers of monopolistic tendency do not lie in the disintegration of capital, or in attacks upon large associated enterprises. The remedy lies rather in direct regulation and control in the public interest. Let those who have the capital and the ability develop our water-powers. The rivers will continue to flow in their natural channels, and the cataracts cannot be removed bodily to Wall Street.



TYPICAL SUMMER CONDITIONS OF THE SAME FALLS AS ABOVE

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PRESIDENT TAFT ADDRESSING THE OPENING SESSION OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL RIVERS AND HARBORS CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, LAST MONTH

(Sitting, left to right—Mr. Brown, Official Stenographer; Capt. Jas. F. Ellison, Secy. and Treas.; Albert Bettinger, Board of Directors. Standing, left to right—Capt. Butt, Pres. Staff; W. B. Jones, M. F. Bryan, Board of Directors, Memphis, Tenn.; Sen. Francis G. Newlands, Nev.; Edw. H. Butler, Board of Directors, Buffalo, N. Y.; Thos. Wilkinson, Burlington, Iowa; President Taft, Thos. P. Eagan, Cincinnati, O.; Hon. Jos. E. Ransdell, Pres.; John A Fox, Special Director; Rev. Geo. Alexander, LL.D., New York City; Col. John I. Martin, Sergeant-at-Arms)

The water-power company will always be dependent upon the patronage of the region tributary to the particular water-power in question, even more than the community will ever be dependent upon the company that develops and sells the power. If Mr. Ballinger's principles of regulation and control are accepted by Congress, as they ought to be in the present session, we should have an end of the talk about a "power trust" invading the public domain. If the principles that the New York State Commission proposes to practice, with the sanction of the Legislature, should go into effect, a fine example would be set that other States could follow. Every State for itself would have it in its power from time to time in the future to protect its people from any possible encroachment by a trust or combination exploiting the power of streams as a commercial resource.

Encourage the Use of Water-Power

At the present time, generally speaking, water-powers have very little value beyond that which the developing companies create by risking the capital necessary for development and by large outlays for machinery and plants. Any future "unearned increment" appertaining to the monopolized control of water-power is always within grasp of the community itself through the principle of taxation. If, in addition to the principle of taxation, the national or State government uses the principle of the lease with periodic revaluing, there can be no possible danger to the general interest. The conservation of so many other things depends upon our utilizing water-power that the burden of proof should be wholly upon those who would do anything to check or retard the building of dams and the electrical transmission of power.

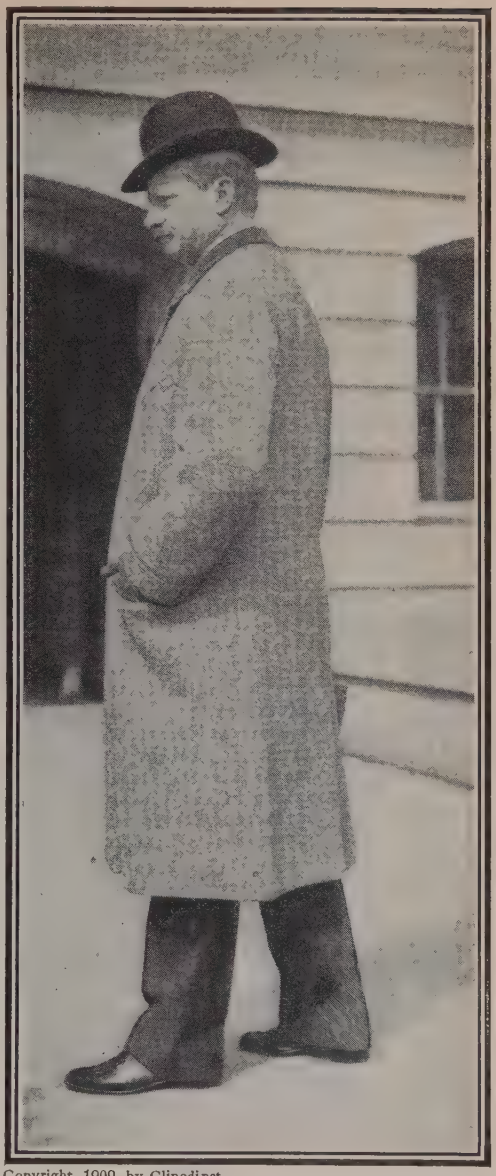
Navigable Rivers and Power Control

There is an interesting question under discussion touching the right of the federal government to control for purposes of water power those streams which it clearly controls for purposes of navigation. We have in our hands a very suggestive and interesting brief by Mr. Edward B. Burling, of Chicago, upon the legal and constitutional

right of Congress to control water-power developed in navigable waters of the United States. The brief is addressed to Dr. Charles W. Eliot, who is president of the National Conservation Association. While recent opinions by Attorney-General Wickersham seem not to have gone so far as Mr. Burling's argument carries him, it does not follow that if Mr. Wickersham were addressing himself to the same exact question he would arrive at a different result. It is not merely an academic matter. We are about to enter upon very large policies in the way of improving our navigable streams at an immense cost to the country. It is well worth while for Congress to understand the full limit of its authority over every phase of waterway development. Last month's Waterways Conference in Washington, attended by thousands of delegates, helped in its measure to complete the outlines of the great policy that is to begin with regulating the Mississippi River and its chief tributaries. Mr. Saunders has written an article for us on this movement, which will be found on another page of this number of the REVIEW.

Mr. Meyer and Naval Reform

One of the most interesting of the annual reports is that of the Secretary of the Navy. Mr. Root, while Secretary of War, brought about a reform of army organization which will remain to his credit as a lasting achievement in statesmanship. What Mr. Meyer as Secretary of the Navy is now bringing to pass in the matter of a reform of method in the direction of the Department's work bids fair to rank as importantly as Mr. Root's army reforms. Mr. Meyer has an admirable head for business, and a trained habit of proceeding directly to the securing of essential things. Thus he is gaining a place among the very ablest public administrators we have known for many years. He found in the Navy Department a series of bureaus dealing with different branches of work, such as construction, equipment, personnel, navy yards, and fleet operation, that were so detached from each other, and so discordant withal, as to make life miserable for the head of the department, while also hampering greatly the efficiency of the one thing for which the Navy Department is supposed to exist,—namely, the power of military defense and offense. Mr. Meyer is not so much getting rid of the bureaus and their officials as he is finding a way to subordinate them to the main object in hand.



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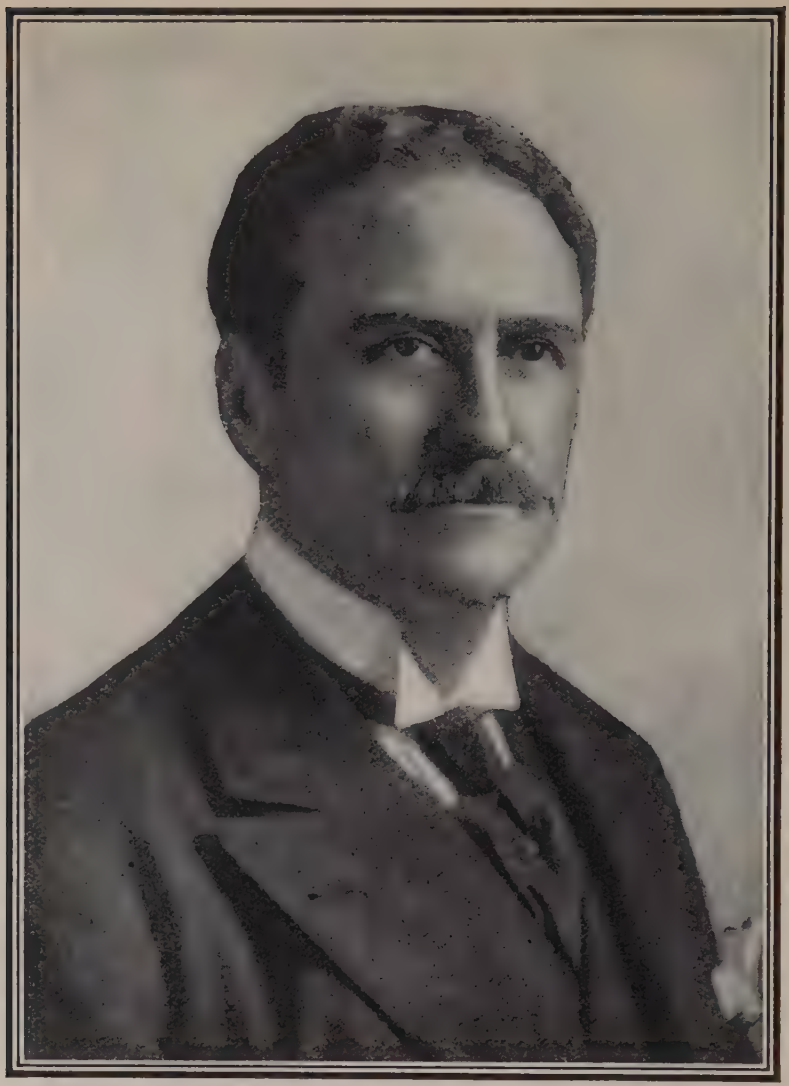
SECRETARY GEORGE VON L. MEYER

The New System

Under general direction of the Secretary, our navy business is henceforth to be run by naval men. The work falls into four logical departments,—namely, material, personnel, fleet operation, and inspection. The Secretary of the Navy is to have four advisers, each of them a Rear-Admiral, and each representing one of the four departments. The bureaus will be grouped and arranged under these headings, everything important will have to be cleared through the Secretary's



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HON. ROBERT BACON, NEW AMBASSADOR TO FRANCE

quadrilateral board of advisers, and the old-time clashes and conflicts will necessarily disappear. An efficient organization of the Navy Department will not be liked by some of the bureaucrats, who will have to take their proper places, nor will it wholly please one or two well-known Senators, who have long imagined themselves the real rulers of Uncle Sam's navy,—more or less in the interest of certain small navy yards and local industries. But Secretary Meyer is so thoroughly right that his reforms will have general public approval; and it is not to be believed that Congress will obstruct improvements for which we have waited so long.

Our Ambassadors.

The announcement was made last month that Ambassador Reid would remain at London for a year or two longer, that Mr. Hill would remain indefinitely as Ambassador at Berlin, that Mr. Richard C. Kerens, of St. Louis, would be sent to Vienna, and that the Hon. Robert Bacon, recently First Assistant Secretary of State, would succeed Mr. Henry White as our Ambassador to France. We have elsewhere spoken of the selection of an Illinois lawyer, Mr. Calhoun, as Minister to China. Mr. Henry Lane Wilson is to be transferred from Brussels to become Ambassador to Mexico.

The Banner Year for Farmers

In the annual report of Secretary Wilson of the Department of Agricuture the value of our farm crops for the year 1909 is given as $8,760,000,000, an increase of $869,000,000 over 1908. This means a total value of agricultural products very much the largest in the history of the country. Only eleven years ago the aggregate worth of these farm crops was just about half the figure for 1909. Corn is the chief contributor to the total, furnishing a value of $1,720,000,000. The year's cotton crop was worth $850,000,000; wheat, $725,000,000; hay, $665,000,000; oats, $400,000,000; potatoes, $212,000,000, and tobacco, $100,000,000. Secretary Wilson does not agree with Mr. J. J. Hill that the productivity of the soils of the country is decreasing. His report shows a tendency toward an increase for the last forty years in the average yields to the acre. It is true, however, that this does not preclude the possibility of a real decline in fertility, which may have been turned into increased productivity by a larger use of fertilizers, and more intensive methods of farming. It is easy to understand how the natural fertility of our soils may be decreasing; as a single instance, the sewage of half the population of the State of New York is wasted by being carried out to sea; this cannot but be dead loss to the soil year by year.

Wheat Yield too small

Mr. Hill's most impressive warning as to the agricultural future has been in the matter of the wheat yield in proportion to population. It seems to be true that, while the wheat yields of Europe, Canada, and Australia are increasing faster than their populations, the crops of the United States and Argentina have increased in the past quarter century only 60 per cent., while the population has grown 68 per cent. Mr. Hill points out that this poor showing is due to our small yield of wheat per acre, as compared with other countries. With France's wheat yield, showing twenty bushels to the acre, Austria-Hungary's eighteen, Germany's twenty-eight, and Great Britain's thirty-two, the United States grows only fourteen bushels to the acre. Even Canada, with no more careful or intensive farming than is practiced on our own wheat farms, averages more than twenty bushels to the acre. But this is due to the recent exploitation of great areas of virgin soil.

Prosperity Here and Abroad

The National Association of Manufacturers has published the results of a symposium of 3000 members on the actual conditions of trade in America to-day and the prospects for the future. In the basic industry of iron and steel the percentage of excellent business is reported as 93, with a 100 percentage of excellence in future prospects. An average increase of prosperity since 1908 of no less than 57 per cent. is indicated in iron and steel. The most prosperous of all branches of trade now is in agricultural implements, with 100 per cent. in both present and future business, and a rebound from 1908 of 31 per cent. The least flourishing department of business is that of food products, with 87 per cent. of present prosperity; 78 per cent. of future excellence, and a recovery from 1908 of only 22 per cent. The figures for food products are affected, of course, by the peculiar conditions affecting the brewers at present, resulting from the prohibition movement. The most lively recovery from the depression of 1908 enjoyed by any single industry has been made in the vehicle trade, which comes to the front with an increase of 62 per cent. The sudden vast expansion in the demand for automobiles largely explains this.

Labor Troubles for Railroads

The middle of December saw the end of the strike of the switchmen on the Northwestern railroads, which had seriously tied up traffic for two weeks, and had forced the closing down of mines, smelters, and flour mills in Minnesota and Montana. The trouble ended in the quiet return of the employees to work without having secured the concessions they demanded. At the same time the Eastern roads are confronted with the prospect of demands to be made upon them in January by their firemen, conductors, and trainmen, who will demand an increase of from 10 to 30 per cent. in wages, and a number of concessions affecting the conditions of labor, the latter too complicated for the layman's ready understanding. Thirty-two railroads east of Chicago are affected. The officers of the roads contend that while traffic has undoubtedly come back to their lines in the large volume of 1907, it is also true that wages were raised in 1906 and 1907, and that they were not reduced in the years of depression. They say flatly that the coming demands cannot be satisfied without a horizontal increase in freight rates. The employees base their demands on the in-

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President Vail Chief Counsel Meany

OFFICERS OF THE AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY, THE "BELL" COMBINATION WHICH RECENTLY PURCHASED CONTROL OF THE WESTERN UNION TELEGRAPH

creased cost of living, a fact as undeniable as it is portentous, and on the higher wages paid to Western trainmen. As to the last, the railroads reply that while it is true that higher wages are paid in the West, it is also true that freight rates are higher in the West in a greater proportion than wages. The news, on December 18, that the Pennsylvania Railroad had come to an amicable settlement with its locomotive engineers is a good augur that these differences may be adjusted without the waste and suffering of a strike, which, in the case of the anthracite roads, would be, in midwinter, particularly disastrous to the public and the railways.

"Bell" Telephones and Others

Combined operation of the country's telegraphs and telephones was last month a widespread topic. A committee of the New York Legislature was inquiring whether these enterprises in New York State ought not to be, like railroads and trolley cars, supervised by the public service commissions. Theodore N. Vail's testimony was voluntary, frank, and particularly important, since he is presi-

dent of the American "Tel. & Tel." Company, which owns the Bell patents, and which through its recent purchase of control of the Western Union Telegraph will have an opportunity to send both kinds of messages over the same wire, and demonstrate economies and better service to the public at the same price. Further discussion of this subject will be found on pages 116 and 117. A week later, December 17th, the control of eight large "independent" telephone companies passed to J. P. Morgan & Co., bankers, for the Bell interests. Thus a system embracing 101,500 telephones and 40,000 miles of long distance lines in Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, previously the stronghold of the independents, will probably become assimilated with the "Bell" lines in that territory, and ultimately have connections with the entire 12,300,000-mile system,—although it is announced that there will be no new general holding company.

Mr. Morgan Controls the Equitable

A striking incident in the financial happenings of last month was the purchase by Mr. J. P. Morgan of the stock control of the Equitable Life Assurance Association. It will be remembered that in 1905 this control was purchased from Mr. James Hazen Hyde by Mr. Thomas F. Ryan after internal dissensions in the company had led to a very serious rupture, and that the shares were turned over by Mr. Ryan to a voting trust, the members of which were Ex-President Grover Cleveland, Justice Morgan J. O'Brien, and Mr. George Westinghouse. The stock that has come to Mr. Morgan is of insignificant amount in figures, but as giving the control of an institution with assets of nearly a half-billion dollars, it is of decided importance. Much interest has been taken in Mr. Morgan's action and its motives. Superintendent Hotchkiss, of the New York State Insurance Department, has made personal inquiry as to Mr. Morgan's intentions, and reports that the financier's sole purpose was to prevent such distribution of the stock, after the expiration of the present voting trust, as would lead to detrimental consequences to the policyholders.

Our Banking Resources

In the course of its excellent work the National Monetary Commission issued in December the most comprehensive report on the condition of the banks of the United States that has ever been made. It shows aggregate resources of banks of all classes,—national banks, State banks, savings banks, and loan and trust companies,—of $21,100,000,000. Of this huge sum, no less than $4,614,000,000 consists of investments in bonds; railroad bonds alone account for $1,560,000,000 and public utility bonds for $466,000,000, while the holdings of State, county, and city bonds amount to over a billion dollars. The total assets represented by commercial paper are considerably less than the bond holdings. This condition reinforces the criticism of those who believe that our banks have come to be, in too great degree, investment concerns, rather than effective aids to trade activity, and that their operations might profitably be less bound up in Wall Street and directed more to the accommodation of commercial borrowers. In the disastrous time of 1907 every dollar of commercial paper was paid at maturity at par, and the chief advantage of the investment securities,—namely, their marketability,—practically disappeared at the very juncture when this quality was most needed. In the Monetary Commission's interesting classification of the country's banking resources, it appears that the Middle Eastern States lead in per capita resources, with $450.19 per unit of population; the New England States come next with $433.60; the Pacific States third, with $347.78; the Middle Western, $190.64; the Far Western, $161.35, and the Southern States last, with $71.19 per capita. New York leads all the States, with $676.07; Massachusetts is next, with $517.25, and Arkansas shows the smallest, $41.14 per capita.

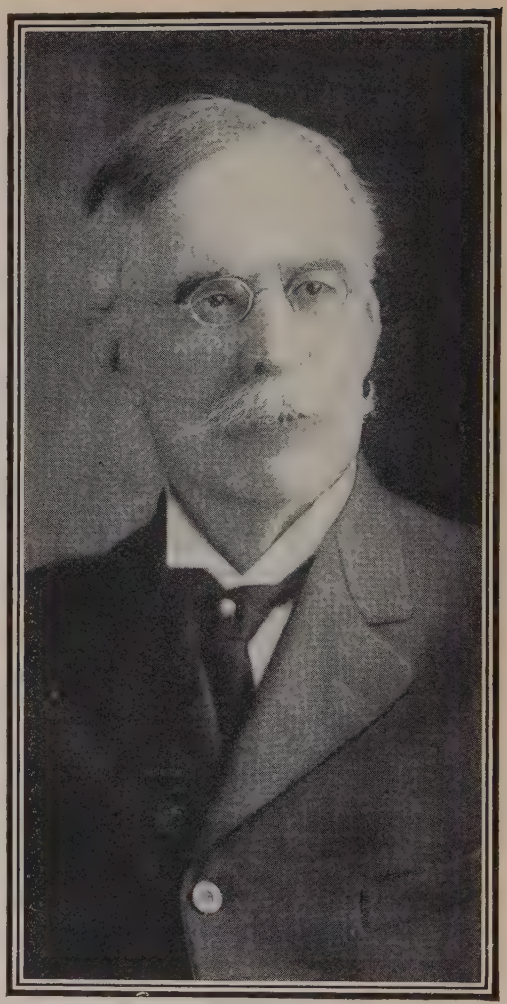
Women's Ten-Hour Laws

Laws limiting the hours of factory labor for women have been on the statute books of some of our States for more than a third of a century, but not until 1908 was the federal Supreme Court called upon to decide on the constitutionality of such enactments. At that time in what was known as the Oregon case the court unanimously held that a State Legislature might pass a law prohibiting more than ten hours' work in one day for women in factories and laundries. In June last the Illinois Legislature enacted a law identical in terms with the Oregon statute. A firm of paper box manufacturers obtained an injunction restraining the State Factory Inspector from enforcing the law on the ground that it interfered with women's freedom, prevented them from earning a living,

and interrupted business. The Illinois Manufacturers' Association indorsed these contentions. Meanwhile the friends of the new law were not idle; they had the co-operation of the Woman's Trade Union League and the National Consumers' League, and Mr. Louis D. Brandeis, of Boston, the lawyer who had argued the Oregon case before the United States Supreme Court, volunteered his services as special counsel for the Illinois officials who had been enjoined from enforcing the ten-hour law. The Russell Sage Foundation supplied funds for the compiling of data on the subject of women workers' hours throughout the world. This work was done under the direction of Miss Josephine Goldmark, publication secretary of the Consumers' League. The material thus compiled has now been digested and arranged in the form of a brief and argument before the Illinois Supreme Court for the appellants in the injunction case. The most remarkable feature of this brief is the array of medical testimony that it cites in regard to the effect of long working hours on the health and general well-being of women. This testimony points unerringly to the necessity of restricting the hours of women's labor on purely physiological grounds, not to speak of the moral and economic aspects of the question.

Panama Canal Progress

The report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, recently issued, serves to remind us of the great engineering work going on down in the Canal Zone under the direction of the United States. During the year beginning July 1, 1908, a complete reorganization of the work was begun and gradually extended throughout all departments. The purpose of this change was to concentrate authority, expedite the transaction of business, secure better co-ordination, more definitely fix responsibility, and reduce cost of administration. The designs for the upper locks at Gatun and Pedro Miguel have been finished, and the work of excavation has gone steadily on in all divisions, although in the Culebra Cut some difficulties have been encountered by reason of excessive rainfall. Health conditions among the workers on the canal have improved. Not a single case of yellow fever or plague occurred on the Isthmus during the year. The schools maintained by the Government in the Canal Zone have also been reorganized and systematized. The cost of the canal will necessarily reach a considerably higher figure than originally estimated, as the later and more detailed estimates show that nearly 50 per cent. more work will be required for the completion of the canal than was at first contemplated, while there has also been a rise of about 20 per cent. in the prices of labor and material.



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SENATOR MONEY, OF MISSISSIPPI

(The new leader of the Democrats on the Senate floor)

Congress and its Plans

The work to be done by Congress this winter had not been definitely presented to the public when, after nearly three weeks of the long session, adjournment was taken until early in January. The Democrats mean to fight for success in the November elections, and will have that object somewhat in view in their Congressional positions during the coming four or five months.

GEN. JOSÉ SANTOS ZELAYA, WHO RESIGNED LAST MONTH AS PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA

The Danes' Judgment on Dr. Cook

The Arctic records of Dr. Frederick A. Cook, by which he hoped to prove to the authorities of the University of Copenhagen that he had reached the North Pole on April 21, 1908, arrived at Copenhagen on December 8 in charge of the explorer's private secretary, Walter Lonsdale. This official informed the newspaper correspondents that the explorer had also sent to Etah, Greenland, for his instruments and his Eskimos, and that these would be produced at Copenhagen as soon as possible as part of the evidence. The committee of six scientists appointed by the university to examine Dr. Cook's records at once began the consideration of the evidence presented. The chairman of the committee, Prof. Ellis Stroemgren, is a scientist of European reputation, and the rest of the committee are regarded as capable, impartial judges. The charges, made early in December, by Capt. A. W. Loose and Mr. George H. Dunkle, of New York, to the effect that they "manufactured" Arctic records for the explorer, together with other reported evidence impeaching the veracity of Dr. Cook's statements, were forwarded to the Danish university soon after the arrival of the explorer's notes themselves. While the deliberations of the committee were secret, it was announced on December 20 that a verdict would undoubtedly be reached before the first of the new year. Quite unexpectedly, on the very following day, December 21, the committee made its announcement in terms unfavorable to Dr. Cook. Nothing in the data submitted was regarded as having scientific value. We shall have more to say next month about this deeply regrettable business.

Vigorous Language to Nicaragua

A great deal of newspaper discussion and some popular excitement was occasioned last month by the vigorous, plain-spoken letter addressed by Secretary Knox to Señor Rodriguez, the Nicaraguan Chargé d'Affaires at Washington. After reviewing in unsparing language the tyrannical and despotic public career of President Zelaya, of Nicaragua, his violations of the peace conventions between the Central American nations, and his frequent insults to American diplomatic representatives, Secretary Knox referred to the maltreatment and execution of the two American citizens, Leroy Cannon and Leonard Groce, without a fair trial, as "officers connected with the revolutionary forces and therefore entitled to be dealt with according to the enlightened practice of civilized nations." "From every point of view," wrote Mr. Knox, "it has evidently become difficult for the United States further to delay more active response to the appeals so long made to its duty to its citizens, to its dignity, to Central America, and to civilization." In these circumstances, "the President no longer feels for the government of President Zelaya that respect and confidence which would make it appropriate hereafter to maintain with it regular diplomatic relations implying the will and ability to respect and assure what is due from one state to another." At the same time Secretary Knox intimated that although no longer officially representative of his country, Señor Rodriguez might communicate informally with the State Department, as might also the representative of the Revolutionists, who, under General Estrada, have been for some weeks in control of the eastern part of Nicaragua.

The Points of Law Involved

Much comment and some criticism upon Secretary Knox's action has revolved about the point, as yet not quite clear, whether these two

men, Cannon and Groce, were commissioned officers of the insurgent forces or engaged in a guerilla warfare of their own against President Zelaya. If they were in the regular force of the Revolutionists, even though the insurgents had not been recognized as belligerents, civilized nations would have accorded them treatment as prisoners of war and their execution was an act of barbarism. If they were "free lances" in the contest they took their lives in their hands. In any event, there was no excuse for subjecting them to personal injuries and indignities. Zelaya himself contends (as reported in an interview telegraphed early last month from Managua, the capital) that both these men were amenable to the law of Nicaragua, "which distinctly authorizes the shooting of individuals commanding rebels." While the execution of these two men was the immediate occasion of the break in the diplomatic relations between the two countries, the deep-seated cause of the present condition of affairs has been Zelaya's despotic rule and repeated violation of treaties. "It is a matter of common knowledge," says Secretary Knox, in the letter to Señor Rodriguez, that, under Zelaya's rule, "Republicanism has ceased to exist in Nicaragua except in name, public opinion and the press have been throttled, and prison has been the reward of any tendency to real patriotism." Following Secretary Knox's letter warships were sent to the Pacific and Atlantic coasts of Nicaragua to safeguard American interests, which are considerable in that country. More serious developments were rendered unnecessary by the resignation on December 16 of Zelaya from the presidency of the republic.

Strong Action Justified

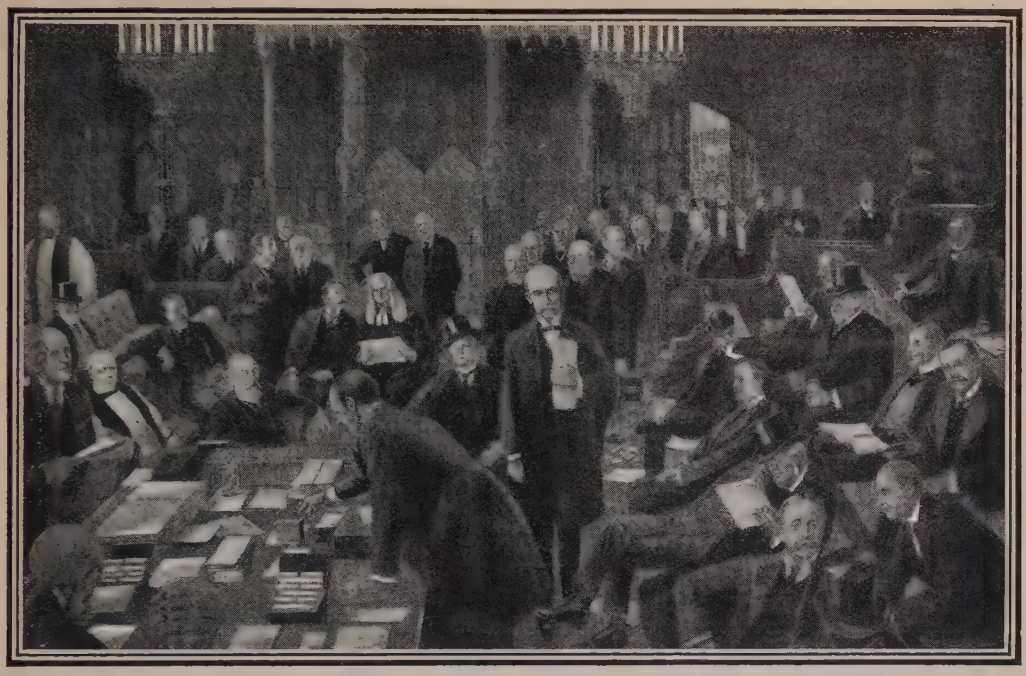
Although made up of six small republics, Central America is, in its international relations, generally looked upon as a unit. Anarchy and civil war in one republic always affect the entire group. With the view to preserving peace on the continent, the United States and Mexico jointly, two years ago, succeeded in inducing all the Central American republics to agree upon a plan of arbitration for their disputes, and to establish a court for that purpose. President Zelaya is one of three or four Central American politicians who have constantly violated, or attempted to violate, this agreement. The charges against him have been proven beyond question. There can be no doubt that the American people and the world will justify firm, impartial, and vigorous action on the part of the nations that have legitimate rights and recognized authority in the preservation of peace in Central America. It was believed last month that, although there is considerable racial sympathy between Mexicans and Central Americans, the Diaz administration would co-operate with the United States Government in a firm and impartial attitude toward Nicaragua.

Chilean Topics

With impressive ceremonies and national rejoicing the formal completion of the tunnels of the trans-Andine Railroad, which will link the Argentine and Chilean capitals by one continuous line, was effected on November 27. The tunnel, which is five miles long, pierces the Andes at a higher altitude than any other tunnel in the world. Early this spring, it is expected, Valparaiso and Buenos Ayres will be connected by a railroad line running directly east and west. Chili thus obtains an outlet for her products on the Atlantic coast and Argentina one for hers on the Pacific. After nearly forty years of negotiation and litigation the Chilean Government last month agreed to submit to arbitration the celebrated Alsop claim made by the United States Government on behalf of American citizens who did business with the governments of Peru, Bolivia, and Chili back in the sixties and seventies of the past century. After the war between the three countries in 1881 formal demand was made to the Chilean Government for a settlement of the claim, since that government had taken over, as a result of the war, the territory in which the claims were made. It is now agreed that King Edward of Great Britain is to act as arbitrator in the question. The point at issue is simply to what extent Chili is bound to assume the pecuniary obligation which rested upon the territory she acquired.

The Lords "Reject" the Budget

The most dramatic moment in the political history of Great Britain for fully three-quarters of a century was midnight on the last day of November, when the House of Lords, by the large majority of 275, "rejected" the budget which the Liberal government had sent up to it after a momentous discussion in the two houses of Parliament and throughout the country lasting for more than six months. The Lords themselves deny that they have rejected the financial measure, holding, in the words of Lord Lans-



LORD LANSDOWNE, IN THE BRITISH HOUSE OF LORDS, MOVING THE "REJECTION" OF THE BUDGET

From a sketch in the *Graphic* (London)

downe's resolution, given in these pages last month, that "they were not justified in giving their consent to the budget until it had been submitted to the judgment of the country." The British public, however, declines to make this fine distinction, and their summing up of the situation is "the Lords have rejected Lloyd-George's budget." The vote was taken with all but four of the 615 peers present, many of them being in their seats for the first time in a decade, and several of them for only the second time in their lives. The galleries were packed to the utmost.

The Debate on the Bill

The debate on the financial bill brought out some oratory of a very high order and exhibited the "intellectual peers" at their very best. The addresses of Lords Morley, Rosebery, Lansdowne, Curzon, Milner, Crewe, and Balfour (of Burleigh), who are the flowers of British statesmanship of to-day, were on a very high order, as were also the addresses of the two "Lords Spiritual," the Archbishops of Canterbury and York. One of the most impressive speeches was made by Lord Curzon, who, while contending for the right of the House of Lords to reject the financial bill, warned the peers that the budget was not bad enough to justify such action, and that rejection might mean for the peers the handwriting on the wall. The Archbishop of York declared that the merits of the measure itself did not enter into the discussion. The question, he said, is one which will "profoundly stir the people of the country, and most Britons would prefer the passage of even a bad budget to tampering with the fundamental laws of the constitution." Lord Crewe, Secretary of State for the Colonies, and Lord of the Privy Seal, speaking for the government, maintained that "the Liberal party would not take office again without some guarantees of security against adverse action by the Lords, these guarantees, if necessary, to be laid down by statute."

Reply of the Commons

Following the vote in the Upper House on the financial measure, the Commons debated the Premier's resolution: "that the action of the House of Lords in refusing to pass into law the financial provision made by this Chamber [the Commons] for the expenses of the year is a breach of the constitution and a usurpation of the rights of the House of Commons," and concurred in it by a vote of

349 to 134. Immediately upon the approval of this resolution Mr. Asquith announced that the government had advised King Edward to dissolve Parliament and that the King had agreed. The Premier added: "If the Liberals are returned to power the first action of the government will be the reenactment of all the taxes for which provision was made in the budget rejected by the House of Lords." Furthermore, the Premier announced that, according to immemorial custom, the taxes, pending the technical enactment of the budget into law, had been collected under the "assessment resolutions" passed in the Commons.

How Taxes Are Imposed in England

The method of raising national revenue in Great Britain, it will be remembered, is quite different from the procedure in the United States. In England the Chancellor of the Exchequer, having prepared his budget estimates, presents to the House of Commons in the form of separate resolutions the estimated needs of each department of the government for the ensuing year. These "assessment resolutions" are acted upon and passed separately by the Commons, and thereupon have the force of law and go into effect immediately during the life of the Parliament then in session. Taxes are collected under these resolutions, even though the budget itself in the form of a complete financial measure is not enacted into law. The resolutions, however, lose force with the prorogation; that is, the final adjournment of the Parliamentary session. In other words, ever since the passage last May in the House of Commons of the financial resolutions which go to make up Mr. Lloyd-George's budget, taxes have been legally collected in accordance with their provisions. Now, however, that the House of Lords has declined to pass the budget and the lower house maintains its stand in the matter, Parliament is prorogued and the new taxes have no legal sanction. Great Britain, therefore, must continue to raise revenue under the budget rules of the year 1908, which have already resulted in a deficit of approximately $100,000,000.

MR. ASQUITH, THE BRITISH PREMIER, ADDRESSING THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON THE BUDGET

(From a sketch by the artist of the London *Daily Chronicle*, which is said to have been highly pleasing to Mr. Asquith himself)

MR. ARTHUR BALFOUR, FORMER PREMIER OF GREAT BRITAIN, NOW LEADER OF THE OPPOSITION

Significance of the Peers' Action

In his speech on the resolution condemning the action of the Lords, Premier Asquith declared further for the government that it was impossible to admit the propriety of the contention of the Peers that in rejecting the budget they were only referring it to the people. "If

this contention were sustained by the people," said Mr. Asquith, "no future Liberal Government would be safe because the Lords would then have the power, if they so desired, to refer all taxes to the people and to compel the dissolution of Parliament each year." As at present constituted there is always a Conservative majority in the House of Lords, and in the future on the basis of the contention just set forth, Conservative governments (since the Lords always concur in Conservative budgets) might have a constitutional life of seven years, whereas Liberal governments could not exist longer than one year. In accordance with the motion of the government for dissolution, King Edward, on December 3, prorogued his second Parliament. It was announced at the same time that early in the present month dissolution would be ordered and writs issued to the House of Commons for the new elections. It was expected that pollings would begin on the thirteenth and extend for about ten days. The new Parliament will assemble about the middle of February.

Parliament Prorogued

The second Parliament of King Edward was dissolved four years after the dissolution of the preceding Parliament. It was on December 4, 1905, that Mr. Arthur Balfour resigned office, and on the next day Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was commissioned to succeed him. On the January 8 following Parliament was dissolved and election followed. The result of the polling was the return of a total ministerial coalition of 513, a majority of 356 against the united opposition. Since that time there have been 93 by-elections, which have generally gone against the Liberals, where seats were contested. At the moment of dissolution the ministerial majority over all in the House was 332. The united opposition, led by former Premier Balfour, professes to see in this a net loss to the government of twenty-four seats in four years chances of a Unionist victory at the polls this month. At the election the British voter will be asked to express his opinion on four rather complicated and closely interwoven questions: (1) The right of the Lords to modify or interfere with financial legislation proposed by the Commons. (2) The specific tax provisions in the present budget. (3) Higher taxation of property versus "Tariff reform." (4) The expansion of the social reform program of the Liberal party.

THE LAND AND THE BREAD-BASKET

PEER: "I'm so glad you're going to fight, John. Land him one on the bread-basket!"

JOHN: "Don't you make any mistake—it's *you* I'm going for, not *him!* You want to shift the taxes from *your* land on to *my* bread-basket!"

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London)

Home Rule and Woman Suffrage

Noteworthy among the campaign utterances of the Liberals are Mr. Asquith's promises with regard to the subjects of Home Rule for Ireland and "Votes for Women." In his reference to the Irish question, Mr. Asquith said:

> Speaking last year before my accession to the Premiership, I described the Irish policy as the one undeniable failure of British statesmanship. I reiterate that this is a problem to be solved only in one way,—by a policy which, while explicitly safeguarding the supreme, indivisible authority of the Imperial Parliament, can set up in Ireland a system of full self-government as regards purely Irish affairs. There is not and cannot be any question of separation. There is not and cannot be any question of rivalry or competing for supremacy subject to these conditions. That is the Liberal policy. For reasons which we believe to have been adequate the present Parliament was disabled in advance from proposing any such solution, but in the new House the Liberal government at the head of a Liberal majority will be in this matter entirely free.

The Premier's declaration has been favorably received by the Irish Nationalists who will support the Ministry. Referring to the general question of the franchise throughout the United Kingdom, the Premier declared that the

KING MANUEL, OF PORTUGAL, AND HIS MOTHER, EX-QUEEN AMELIE, IN THE OFFICE OF THE PALACE AT LISBON

Liberals in the new Parliament will undoubtedly take some definite action upon the question of woman suffrage. Notwithstanding the "deplorable, suicidal policy of a small section of its advocates," said Mr. Asquith, "the government does not desire to burke the question which is chiefly one upon which the new House of Commons should express its opinion."

England's Land-Holding Peers

The opposition of the Lords to the Liberal budget, as already pointed out more than once in these pages, arises chiefly from the fact that its provisions call for greatly increased taxes upon land and property, and a decrease of the burdens upon foodstuffs and articles used by the poorer classes. Some of the Radical and Liberal papers, notably the London *Daily Chronicle,* are publishing lists of the names of land-owning peers, indicating the number of their acres to show their reasons for voting against "a land tax budget." Out of a total area in the United Kingdom of 77,000,000 acres, the peers who voted against the budget own more than 16,000,000,—more than a fifth of the whole. Conservative opinion in England holds that in permitting their personal interests to stand in the way of the national good the Lords (we quote the *Chronicle*) "have chosen the way of destruction." That the Liberals, if they again secure a majority, will fail to introduce some radical legislation looking toward the curtailing of the Lords' power, cannot be doubted. It is not to be expected that the British people will desert the constitutional principle of a second Chamber. That they will, however, in time do away with the hereditary principle is to be expected. A scheme of reform of the Lords has already been outlined by a commission appointed by themselves, and it seems probable that the present crisis may bring about a compromise acceptable to both parties.

Events in Portugal

The visit of King Manuel of Portugal to England late in November, for the purpose, it was generally believed, of choosing an English princess for a wife, recalled the attention of the world to the little Iberian kingdom. Two years ago next month, it will be remembered, King Carlos I. and his eldest son were assassinated by the agents of a political organization which regarded the Braganza family as responsible for the political and industrial decadence of Portugal. Manuel, the second son, succeeded. Since that time, with the help of the experience and moderate

THE YOUTHFUL KINGS OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL
(Photographed during King Manuel's visit to Madrid)

QUEEN WILHELMINA OF HOLLAND, AND THE PRINCESS JULIANA

counsels of his mother, Queen Amelie, the young monarch, who is twenty years of age, has managed the affairs of state with a gratifying degree of success. Portugal, however, is apparently still far from being a modern state. Political and industrial methods are yet corrupt and antiquated, and if we are to believe the reports that come with increasing frequency through London, there is still a great deal of discontent in the country.

Portugal's Colonial Backwardness

But it is particularly in the few colonial possessions that still remain to Portugal of her once vast tropical and oriental empire, that is to be found the chief indictment of Portuguese governmental administration. Reports of maladministration in the Cape Verde Islands as well as in Timor and Gôa, Portugal's East Indian possessions, are made public at the same time as the Chinese Government accuses the Portuguese authorities of unjust treatment of the Chinese in Macao, the Portuguese island at the mouth of the Canton River. From Portuguese East Africa and Angola, the world hears stories of cruel exploitation of the natives and, during the past few months, so serious have been the charges of peonage and slavery in the islands of San Thomé and Principe, off the west coast of Africa, that an international agitation has been started to investigate the condition of the native workmen on the cocoa plantations in these islands. An agent of one of the large English cocoa manufacturers who visited the plantations reported the natives to be in a shocking condition. It should be said here that a royal decree, dated at Lisbon in July

MADAME SELMA LAGERLOFF

(The Swedish authoress to whom last month was awarded the Nobel prize for literature)

last, but only published in London within the past fortnight, suspends for three months "the recruiting of labor in Angola for San Thomé and Principe, cocoa plantations," and intimates a future "complete suspension."

The New Regime in Belgium

Belgium begins the year 1910 under a new monarch. On December 23 Prince Albert formally took the oath of office and ascended the throne as Albert I. Belgium has had a long period of peace and prosperity, and, secure in her neutrality and integrity, which is guaranteed by the rest of Europe, the Belgians begin their new era with the best of prospects. There has been a growing fear in recent years that German capital was gaining undue influence in commercial and educational matters in Belgium, as well as in her sister kingdom of the Netherlands. Against this "peaceful penetration," looking eventually, it is apprehended, toward absorption of the kingdom by Germany, many Belgians have protested in the public press. The new King is patriotic and independent, and he will have this, the only purely foreign problem of the country, to face,—a task which may not prove an easy one, since King Albert is known to have strong German sympathies. It is not believed in the European capitals that the death of King Leopold can have much effect upon the politics of the continent. The general situation in Belgium, as the new King finds it, with some facts about the monarch and his Queen, and a brief survey of the career of the late Leopold II. are set forth on another page this month. It is believed in London and Paris that a change of rulers will be followed by new methods of administration in the Congo, since it is well known that the new King, understanding as he does from personal knowledge the true situation in Africa, is in favor of thorough-going reforms. Indeed, during the last hours of King Leopold's life the Colonial Minister introduced in the National Assembly a bill for the radical reform of the Congo administration.

The Nobel Prize Winners of 1909

Women have now won prizes in three of the five fields marked for distinction by the bequest of the late Dr. Alfred Nobel, the Swedish engineer and chemist. In 1903 Madame Curie shared one with her husband and M. Becquerel for her discoveries in connection with the radium ray. In 1905 the prize for the greatest contribution to the cause of international peace was awarded to the Baroness von Suttner, an Austrian lady, whose book, "Ground Arms," made a deep impression throughout the world. At the distribution of prizes for the year 1909, made last month in Stockholm, Madame Selma Lagerloff, the Swedish authoress, took the honors in literature. Her collection of Scandinavian stories, which have been described as "bright pictures of Northern optimism," has gone through several editions in Sweden and Germany, and has made the authoress famous in Europe and in this country as well. The other Nobel prizes awarded last month went to William Marconi and Professor Ferdinand Braun, of Strasburg, for physics; to Professor Wilhelm Ostwald, of Leipsig, for chemistry; to Professor Theodor Kocher, of Berne, for physiology and medicine, and to Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, one of the permanent members of the Hague Tribunal for France, and to M. Beernaert, former Minister of State of Belgium, for contributions to the cause of world peace.

A Minister to China at Last.

The important event in our far Eastern relations during the past few weeks has been the appointment by President Taft of Mr. William James Calhoun, of Chicago, as Minister to China. Mr. Calhoun has accepted the appointment, and the Chinese Government has pronounced him *persona grata*. Upon several important occasions Mr. Calhoun, who is a prominent lawyer of Chicago, has demonstrated his fitness for such a diplomatic post as the Chinese mission. Just before the war with Spain, President McKinley entrusted him with the delicate and complex task of investigating the situation in Cuba. President Roosevelt commissioned him to perform a like service in Venezuela in 1905. On both these occasions he exhibited sound judgment, coolness, and diplomatic tact, qualities he will certainly need for his new duties in China. It is expected that Mr. Calhoun will depart for his new post early in the present month. It is one of the peculiar requirements of the minister of any country to the Celestial Empire that its affairs are generally more important in their relation to the neighboring nations of Russia and Japan than in themselves. Mr. Calhoun will have to understand and deal with not only Chinese-American relations but also with Chinese-Russian, Chinese-Japanese, and American-Russian-Japanese relations. The tension between China and Russia over the still unsettled question of municipal administration in the Manchurian cities along the Siberian border, and the next steps in Japan's administration of Korea will be the immediate problems facing the new American Minister when he arrives at his post. In this connection it is interesting to note the fact that Prince Yamagata, one of the Japanese Elder Statesmen, has been appointed President of the Privy Council to succeed the late Prince Ito, who was recently assassinated by a fanatic Korean, and that almost simultaneously with the appointment of Mr. Calhoun to the post at Peking, Mr. Chang, the new Chinese Minister, presented his credentials at Washington, and Baron Uchida, the new Ambassador from Japan, succeeding Baron Takahira, arrived at San Francisco.

Vast Australia.

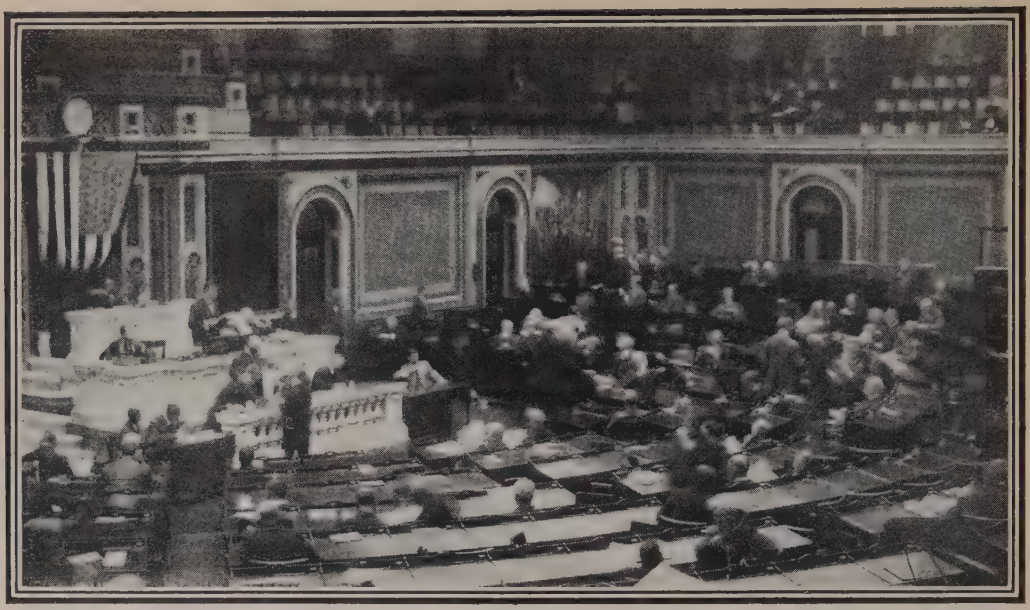
While Canada has definitely made up her mind upon the question of a national navy, another British commonwealth is considering the same problem for itself. Australia also is intent upon the creation of the basis of a real navy. A bill providing for one armored and three unarmored cruisers, in addition to other small vessels of war, has already passed its third reading in the Lower House of the Commonwealth. Within the past decade the island continent of Australia has found her whole political environment suddenly and radically transformed. More than one naval and military power in alarmingly close proximity to her undefended coasts are apparently beginning to find in her vast unpeopled territory a standing temptation for their national expansion. In reply to the contention of an English speaker in one of the recent imperial conferences in London, that Australia does not offer fertility of soil and natural resources in such profusion as to seriously tempt foreign aggression, the Hon. Bernhard R. Wise, formerly Attorney-General of New South Wales, replied, in a speech in the Federal Parliament, afterward incorporated in a recently published book, by saying:

AUSTRALIA AND EUROPE COMPARED

(Showing how all the countries of Europe could be placed along the "coastal fringe" of Australia, and there would be room to spare)

> The coastal fringe of the continent alone, the fertility of which is universally admitted, is much larger than all the countries of Europe put together, if we leave out Russia. But there is even room on the maritime belt for a portion of Russia as well, while the whole of the interior does not make up an area one-half the size of the Czar's European dominion.

In illustration of his point of view, Mr. Wise prints in his book an interesting map comparing Australia and the continent of Europe, which we reproduce herewith.



THE READING OF THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From November 20 to December 19, 1909)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

December 6.—Both branches of the Sixty-first Congress meet in regular session and adjourn as a token of respect to the memory of deceased members.

December 7.—President Taft's annual message is received and read in both branches.

December 10.—In the Senate, Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) introduces his bill amending the Interstate Commerce law.

December 14.—In the House, the District of Columbia Appropriation bill is favorably reported, and bills are introduced for the establishment of a central national bank and the further restriction of immigration.

December 15.—The House passes two bills to promote safety on railroads.

December 16.—The Senate adopts a resolution calling on the Department of the Interior for information regarding mine disasters....In the House, Mr. Hitchcock (Dem., Neb.) makes a bitter attack on Secretary Ballinger.

December 17.—The House considers the District of Columbia Appropriation bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

November 20.—The United States Circuit Court for the district of Missouri holds that the Standard Oil Company, of New Jersey, is an illegal corporation and orders that it be dissolved.

November 24.—W. Cameron Forbes, of Massachusetts, is inaugurated as Governor-General of the Philippines....President Taft holds conferences with Attorney-General Wickersham concerning amendments to the Interstate Commerce law and the white-slave traffic....President Taft appoints Benjamin S. Cable Assistant Secretary of the Interior, James L. Davenport Commissioner of Pensions, and Chief Justice William J. Mills Governor of New Mexico....Governor Hughes, of New York, appoints Arion H. Cheney State Superintendent of Banks, to succeed Clark Williams.

November 26.—President Taft approves the regulations for the collection of the corporation tax submitted to him by Secretary MacVeagh.

November 28.—It is announced in Washington that the number of federal employees in the country is 370,065, as against 306,141 in 1907.

November 29.—The Secretary of the Navy promulgates a plan for the reorganization of his department....The prohibitory amendment is defeated in Alabama by a majority of 20,000.

December 9.—President Taft confers with Speaker Cannon and Vice-President Sherman on the legislative program in Congress....At a caucus of Democratic Senators, Senator Money, of Mississippi, is elected minority leader.

December 13.—President Taft nominates Judge Horace H. Lurton, of Tennessee, for Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

December 15.—Secretary Dickinson announces the selection of Major-Gen. Leonard Wood for Chief of Staff of the Army to succeed Major-Gen. J. Franklin Bell.

December 18.—Secretary MacVeagh issues an order eliminating State, city, and railroad bonds from securities which may be accepted for deposit of public moneys in national banks.

HON. JOHN RAINES, OF THE NEW YORK STATE SENATE

(Senator Raines, who died on December 16, had been for twenty years a dominant figure in New York Republican politics)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

November 22.—The British House of Lords begins debate on the budget; Lord Loreburn outlines the policy of the Liberals.

November 23.—In the French Chamber of Deputies a motion to put an end to the military occupation of Morocco is defeated by a vote of 436 to 71.

November 24.—Lord Rosebery makes a notable speech during the budget debate in the British House of Lords....The Octobrists introduce a bill in the Russian Duma to restrict the powers of the political police....The Australian Parliament approves the government's naval proposals.

November 26.—The Australian Senate passes a bill confirming the selection of the Yas-Canberra as the site of the federal capital....The French state employees, representing 181,000 civil servants, decide to form a national federation.

November 27.—The Spanish cabinet decides to withdraw the troops from Morocco.

November 29.—Lord Morley and Lord James, of Hereford, make notable speeches in the House of Lords, warning the peers of the serious consequences likely to result from the suspension of the budget.

November 30.—The British House of Lords, by a vote of 350 to 75, adopts the motion of Lord Lansdowne suspending the Finance bill. ....The German Reichstag is opened by Emperor William.

December 2.—The British House of Commons indorses the budget by a majority of more than 200, after its rejection by the Lords....The Italian cabinet, headed by Premier Giolitti, resigns.

December 3.—The British Parliament is prorogued.

December 5.—High Belgian officials issue a protest against the charges of maladministration in the Congo.

December 7.—John E. Redmond issues a manifesto in behalf of the Irish party....The Danish Folkething adopts a resolution that ex-Ministers Christensen and Berg should be prosecuted.

December 10.—Baron Sidney Sonnino succeeds in forming a new Italian cabinet....Premier Asquith commits the Liberal party to Irish self-government in all matters relating to home affairs.

December 12.—The Spanish municipal elections result in Liberal victories.

December 13.—Judge Cannon, of Montreal, makes a report urging the prosecution of fourteen municipal officials on charges of graft.

December 14.—The Canadian budget is introduced in Parliament.

December 15.—The Russian Duma censures the Minister of Justice for issuing an order barring lawyers from visiting their clients in the prisons....The Irish Nationalist convention pledges support to the Liberal party in the coming election.

December 16.—President Zelaya, of Nicaragua, sends his resignation to Congress.

December 17.—The legislature of New South Wales passes a bill rendering employers or employees who instigate a strike or lockout liable to a year's imprisonment.

December 19.—Belgian Socialists issue a manifesto demanding a republic.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

November 29.—Great Britain, Germany, and Belgium reach an agreement on the boundaries of British Uganda, German East Africa, and the Congo Independent State....The United States and Chile request King Edward to act as arbitrator in the case of the Alsop claims.

November 30.—Emperor William of Germany, in opening the Reichstag, expresses the opinion that the Triple Alliance will continue to stand together for the world's peace.

December 1.—Secretary Knox recognizes the Estrada government in Nicaragua, dismisses the representative of Zelaya in Washington, and informs him that the United States will hold those responsible for the execution of Cannon and Groce personally accountable.

December 5.—China issues a protest to the powers against Russia's attempt to control the administration of Manchurian railways.

December 6.—William J. Calhoun, of Illinois, is appointed American minister to China.

December 9.—The protecting powers deny

Turkey's request to interfere with the *status quo* in Crete.

December 10.—The German Chancellor refers during the budget debate in the Reichstag to affairs in Morocco, Germany's relations with Great Britain, and the Triple Alliance.

December 13.—Nicaragua threatens to make reprisals against Costa Rica in case of further attacks on the frontier.

December 15.—China refuses Portugal's proposal to submit the dispute over Macao to arbitration....The French Chamber of Deputies votes to increase the duties on American agricultural machines.

Photograph by Harris & Ewing

STATUE OF JOHN C. CALHOUN TO BE PLACED IN THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON BY THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA

(F. W. Ruckstuhl, sculptor)

December 17.—The *Buffalo*, with 700 marines, is ordered to sail from Panama for Corinto on advices that American citizens in Nicaragua are in peril.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

November 20.—The American Federation of Labor re-elects Samuel Gompers president, John Mitchell vice-president, and Frank Morrison secretary....M. Paulhan makes an aeroplane trip from Mourmelon to Chalons and return, sixty kilometers, in fifty-five minutes; he reaches an altitude of 1000 feet....Explorers in the St. Paul mine at Cherry, Ill., find twenty survivors still alive (see page 102).

November 22.—Teneriffe experiences an earthquake.

November 26.—Dr. Brenckmann and Hugo Francke, members of the Aero Club of Berlin, are killed by the collapse of their balloon near Fiume.

November 29.—The Berlin Aero Club appoints a committee to gather information for air charts.

November 30.—Two Japanese steamers founder in a gale off Korea and Japan, with heavy loss of life.

December 1.—Hubert Latham makes an ascent in his aeroplane near Mourmelon, reaching an estimated height of 1600 feet....Several small villages near Bitlis, Asiatic Turkey, are destroyed by an earthquake....As a result of a switchmen's strike, practically every branch of trade in the Northwest is affected; a coal and food famine is threatened....A Yoakum-Hawley syndicate buys control of the Frisco system from the Rock Island.

December 3.—The British steamer *Thistlemor* founders in Biddeford Bay, in a gale which sweeps the British coast.

December 6.—Antonio Fernandez makes too sharp a turn in his aeroplane at Nice and the machine falls and crushes him.

December 7.—The Norfolk & Southern Railway is sold at auction at Norfolk, Va., to representatives of the reorganization committee for $8,500,000....A special train makes the run from Chicago to New York in seventeen and a half hours, a new eastbound record for the distance (980 miles).

December 8.—President Taft makes the opening address at the meeting of the National Rivers and Harbors Congress in Washington. ....The National Monetary Commission makes public reports of all the financial institutions of the United States....Secretary MacVeagh speaks on the tariff before the bankers of Boston....The New York Board of Education forbids the playing of football after January 1, 1910....Announcement is made that the American Academy at Rome has received as a gift a villa worth $500,000, to be used as a home for the institution.

December 10.—The American battleships Georgia and Nebraska are in collision off the Virginia capes....A report showing the extent of and evils of the white-slave traffic is presented to Congress by the United States Immigration Commission....The American Ice Company is found guilty of creating a monopoly.

December 11.—The total number of deaths reported on the Great Lakes in a single week is fifty-eight, in comparison with sixty-three lives lost during the rest of the season.

December 12.—The General Assembly of the International Institute of Agriculture, representing forty-six countries, meets at Rome, Italy.

December 13.—Fire in Valdivia, Chile, destroys eighteen blocks; thousands of persons are homeless and the loss is estimated at $2,500,000....Capt. Thomas Franklin, U. S. A., is sentenced to two and a half years in the

federal prison at Atlanta for embezzlement of Military Academy funds.

December 18.—In one week there are thirteen serious railroad wrecks in the United States and Canada; the dead number twenty-six; the injured, over 200.

OBITUARY

November 20.—The Dowager Duchess of Manchester, formerly Consuelo Yznaga....The Earl of Moray, 67.

November 21.—Peter Kroeyer, the world-renowned Danish painter....James E. Defebaugh, editor and proprietor of the *American Lumberman*, 55.

November 22.—Baron George de Reuter, 46. ....John Caldwell, treasurer of the Westinghouse Air Brake Company, 70.

November 23.—Congressman David A. De Armond, of Missouri, 66....Solon Chase, of Maine, a prominent figure in the "greenback" agitation of the '70s, 87....Admiral Baron Gustav von Senden-Bibran, 62.

November 25.—Ex-Congressman Edward P. Allen, of Michigan....Luis Montt, director of the Chilean National Library.

November 26.—Judge Henry Fitzgibbon, Recorder of Belfast, 85....Cyprien Godebski, the sculptor.

November 27.—Mr. Kendal O'Brien, M. P., 60.

November 28.—Col. John R. Webster, of North Carolina, 64....James P. Carey, of the Brooklyn *Eagle*, 78.

November 29.—David A. Woodward, inventor of the solar print system of portrait painting, 86....Mother Austin Carroll, head of the Sisters of Mercy of New Orleans, 80.

November 30.—Charles Stewart Smith, of New York, 77....Rt. Rev. Thomas A. Hendrick, first American Bishop of the Roman Catholic diocese of Cebu, 60....Karl Theodor, Duke of Bavaria, a famous eye specialist, 70.... Isadore Newman, the New Orleans banker, 73. ....Brig. Gen. Thomas McCurdy Vincent, U. S. A. (retired), 77.

December 1.—Brig.-Gen. Henry M. Adams, U. S. A. (retired), 65....Oscar F. Williams, American Consul at Manila in the Spanish-American War, 66.

December 2.—Rev. William Alfred Packard, D. D., professor emeritus of Latin at Princeton, 79.

December 3.—Prof. Charles Gross, of the department of history at Harvard, 52....Allesandro Fortis, formerly Premier of Italy.

December 5.—Bishop Daniel A. Goodsell, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 70....Emily Huntington, teacher and author, 69....Henry Pearce, the Providence banker, 71....William Metcalf, a well-known metallurgist, 71.

December 6.—Arthur Hill, one of the Republican leaders of Michigan, 61.

December 7.—Adolf Growoll, the bibliographer, 59....Lemuel T. Atwood, financial head of the Scripps-McRae newspapers, 57.

THE LATE BISHOP DANIEL A. GOODSELL, OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

December 9.—Hermann Kaulbach, the German artist, 63....Dr. C. J. Boulden, president of King's University, Nova Scotia, 48....Gen. Domingo Vasquez, former President of Honduras.

December 10.—Chief Justice Leonard A. Jones, of the Massachusetts Land Court, 77.... Dr. Ludwig Mond, the chemist, 70....Red Cloud, the famous Sioux Indian chief, 90.

December 13.—Sir Alfred Lewis Jones, head of the firm of Elder, Dempster & Co., ship owners, 63....Dr. Ludwig von Holle, former Prussian Minister of Education, 54.

December 14.—Ex-Congressman Philip B. Thompson, of Kentucky, 54....Agustin Querol, the Spanish sculptor, 46.

December 15.—Rev. David C. Hughes, father of Governor Hughes, of New York, 77.... Charles Ledyard Norton, the author and journalist, 72....Gen. William W. Dudley, of Indiana, formerly Commissioner of Pensions, 67.

December 16.—State Senator John Raines, of Canandaigua, N. Y., 69....Frederick Greenwood, the English author and journalist.

December 17.—King Leopold, of Belgium, 74 (see page 42).

December 18.—Gen. Green B. Raum, of Illinois, formerly Commissioner of Internal Revenue and Commissioner of Pensions, 80.... Israel W. Morris, a pioneer mining engineer of Pennsylvania, 80....Grand Duke Michael Nicholaievitch, of Russia, grand uncle of the Czar and oldest representative of the Russian imperial house, 77.

CURRENT TOPICS IN CARICATURE

The session of Congress that began last month, and the many important matters of legislation to come up for discussion, have provided fruitful subjects for the cartoonist's pencil. President Taft's message to Congress, also, naturally, comes in for considerable attention. We have selected some of the best of the recent cartoons for reproduction in these pages.

THE LONG ROAD!
From the *World* (New York)

DING, DONG!
The assembling of Congress at the call of the Capitol bell
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)

PUT SOME GOOD AMENDMENTS IN A TIN CAN OR WE'LL STEAL THE CHILD!
THE TRUSTS
WHITE HOUSE
SHERMAN ANTI TRUST LAW
TAFT
Herbert Johnson

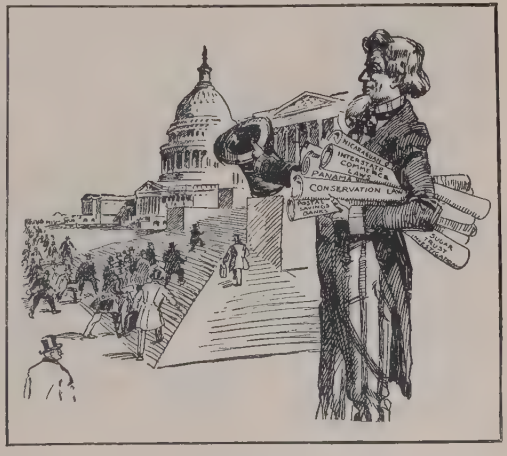
A BLACK-HAND THREAT

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

THE LATEST SONG

From the *Tribune* (South Bend, Ind.)

(Apropos of President Taft's recommendations for greater economy in the expenditure of the national revenues)



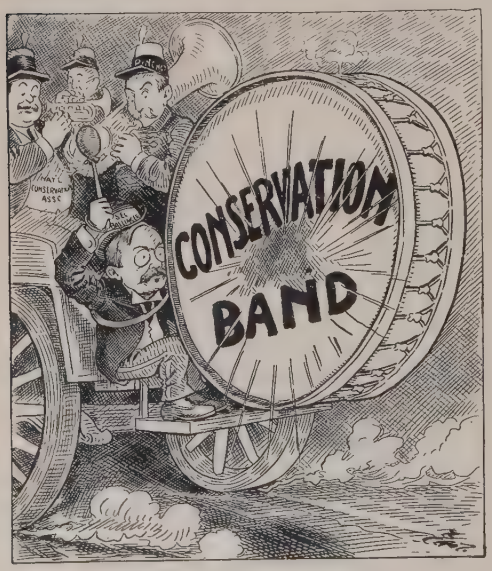
UNCLE SAM: "Walk right in, boys, and get to work. I have a lot of important things for you to do."

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

THE USUAL FATE OF THE MAN WHO TRIES TO STAND IN WITH BOTH SIDES

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

(Apropos of the President's endeavors to harmonize discordant factions in Congress)



MAKING THE BIG NOISE, NOW

(Referring to the present prominence of conservation policies)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

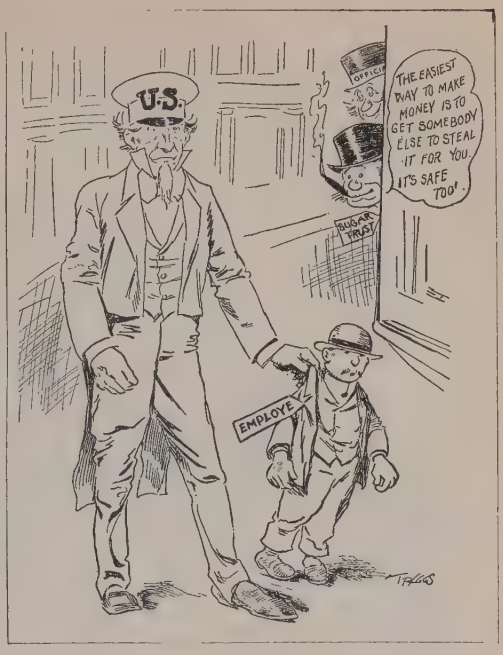
SOFT PEDAL

(President Taft's message to Congress was notable for its calm temper and judicial tone)

From the *World* (New York)

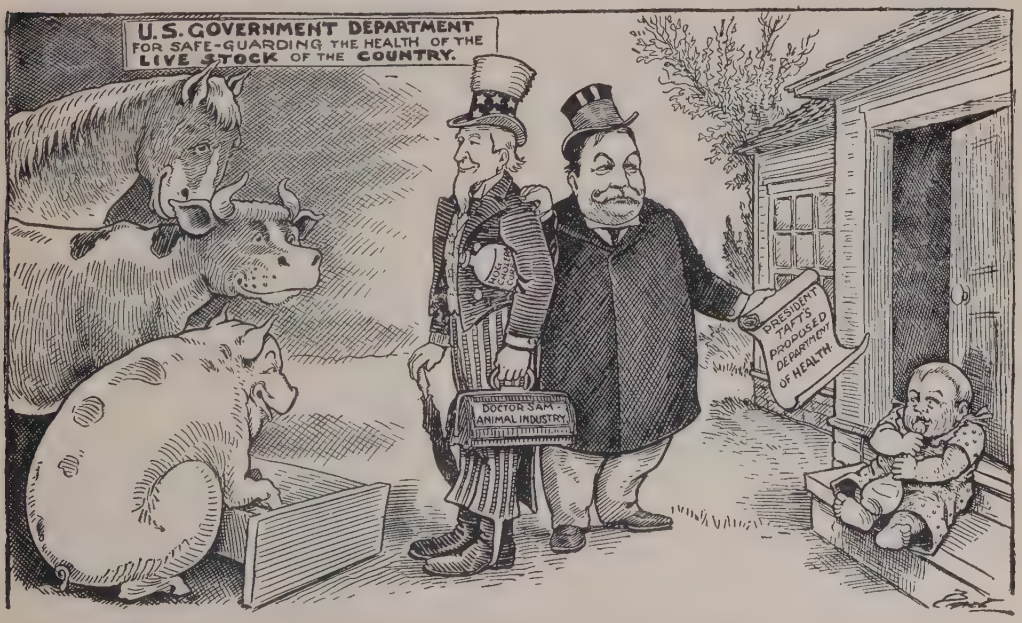
CAN'T SEEM TO MAKE AN IMPRESSION
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

Speaker Cannon remains a "live" subject, and the cartoonist's characterization of him as a file is to indicate that the attacks of the insurgent Congressmen will make little impression on this hardened veteran.



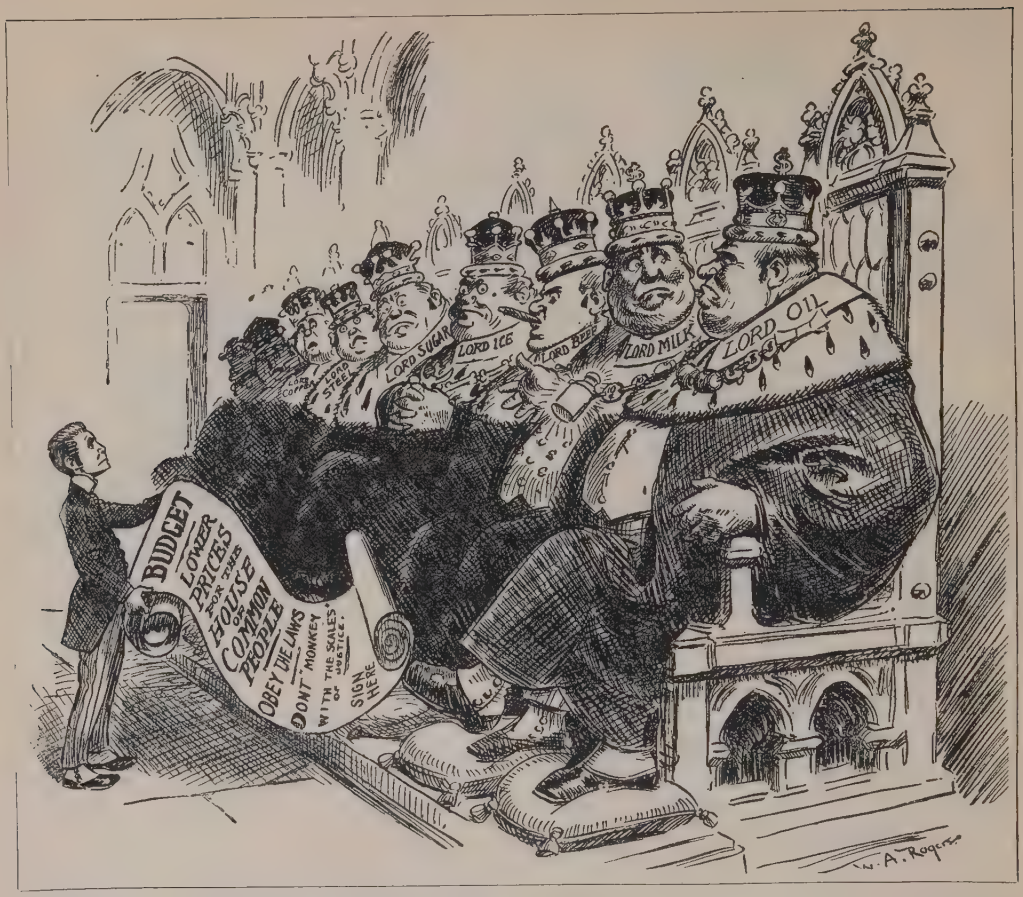
WHAT'S THE USE?
From the *Press* (New York)

The above cartoon is a reminder of the difficulty experienced in many cases of corporate crime in getting at the responsible offenders,—the men "higher up,"—instead of punishing the employee.

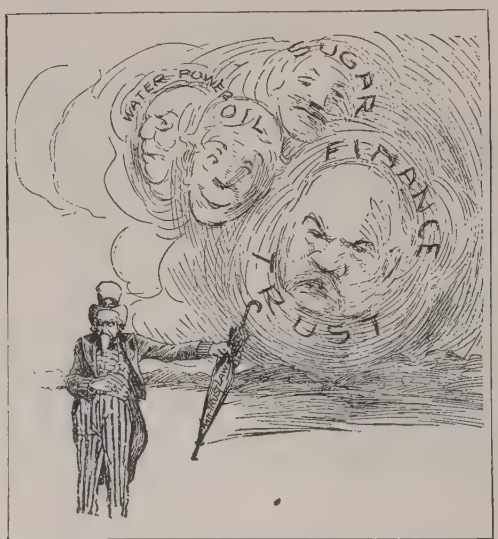

U.S. GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT FOR SAFE-GUARDING THE HEALTH OF THE LIVE STOCK OF THE COUNTRY.
DOCTOR SAM ANIMAL INDUSTRY
PRESIDENT TAFT'S PROPOSED DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH

PRESIDENT TAFT: "SUPPOSE WE SPEND SOME MONEY AND CARE ON THE HEALTH OF THE HUMAN FAMILY FOR A WHILE, DOCTOR?"

President Taft has recommended a Federal Health Bureau.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

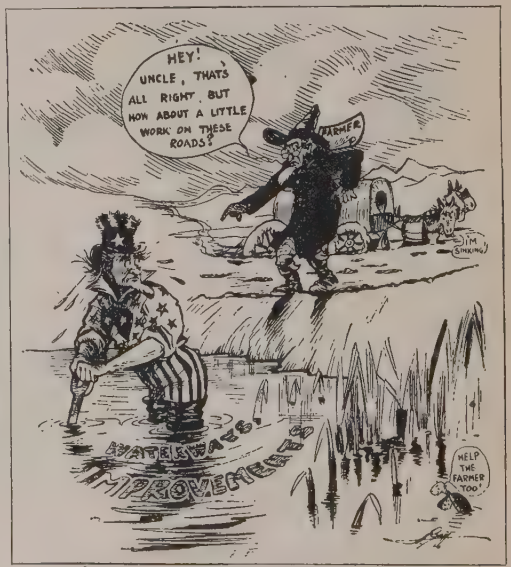


AMERICAN HOUSE OF LORDS A LITTLE WORRIED, TOO!
From the *Herald* (New York)



UNCLE SAM: "If the old umbrell' [the Sherman anti-trust law] needs mendin', now's the time to do it!"

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



WHAT IS HE GOING TO DO ABOUT IT?
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta)

THE COP ON THE JOB

(Uncle Sam again playing the part of the policeman in a turbulent Central-American Republic)

From the *Traveler* (Boston)

THE HARD LIFE OF A POLAR EXPLORER

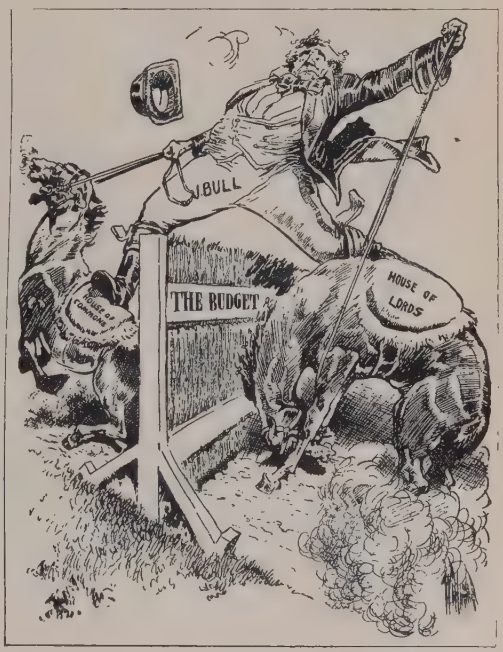
(In view of various charges and accusations, Dr. Cook's lot has not been a happy one)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

THE CHALLENGE!

(Apropos of the refusal of the English House of Lords to ratify the budget passed by the House of Commons)

From the *World* (New York)



WHOA!

(John Bull's House of Lords horse refuses to leap the budget hurdle and leaves him in a bad predicament)

From the *Herald* (Boston)

BELGIUM AND THE NEW REGIME

UNDER the Salic law of succession the throne of Belgium passes the late King Leopold's three daughters and is vested in Prince Albert, the only son of Leopold's younger brother, Count Phillippe of Flanders. The new monarch is now thirty-four years of age, and one of the most popular members of the reigning house of Belgium. He is reported as being exceedingly democratic in his disposition; he has a talent for civil engineering, and has practiced this hobby of his in many parts of the globe. He has been a great traveler and student of politics and economics. In 1898 he visited the United States, and studied railroading under the guidance of Mr. James J. Hill. Several years later he made an extended visit to the Congo, and upon his return to Belgium urged strongly the needs of railroad development and reform of the treatment of the natives. King Albert is a thoroughly enlightened man and a great reader. He is averse to pomp and display, is affable and free in manner, has a keen sense of duty, and is profoundly interested in social questions. His domestic life is very happy. He is a devoted husband and affectionate father. In person he is exceptionally tall, with a handsome face of the best German type. He is devoted to outdoor sports. His wife, the Princess Elizabeth of Bavaria, whom he married in 1900, is a woman of cultured and domestic tastes. She is known as one of the most learned Princesses in Europe. They have three children, Prince Leopold, aged nine; Prince Charles, aged seven, and the Princess Marie José, aged four.

Albert I. is the third King of Belgium. When, in 1830, the revolution broke out in Brussels, which resulted in the separation of the provinces which now form the kingdom of Belgium from the Netherlands, the first Belgian National Congress elected Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg Gotha first King of the Belgians. Leopold I. ascended the throne in July, 1831, and almost immediately afterwards the perpetual neutrality of Belgium was guaranteed by Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain. Soon after his accession, the first Belgian King married Princess Louise, daughter of Louis Philippe, "Citizen King of France." Their son, Louis Philippe Marie Victor, in the thirtieth year of his age was crowned King of Belgium as Leopold II. in December, 1865. Since that time the history of Belgian domestic affairs and the international reputation of the Belgian people have been closely identified with the name and fame of their King, not always to the enhancement of their reputation.

Of Leopold II. as a constitutional monarch little but praise can be written. By his able management of his country's affairs he placed that comparatively insignificant state on a plane of great domestic prosperity and of world-wide importance. In their own country the Belgians are noted for their industry, intelligence, and frugality, while abroad their enterprise and industry have become a proverb. The successful expression of these qualities in action has been due very largely to the astute business methods and wise political policies of the late King Leopold. Early in his reign he fixed upon the foreign policy of England as the model for Belgium, and thereupon began to urge the ideas of colonization and the extension of trade. He actively advocated a strong navy and a merchant marine, and personally urged and arranged for the distribution of samples of Belgian manufactures to all parts of the world. At his instigation Belgian enterprise in the shape of capital for investment and commerce generally spread over the globe. Belgian money and Belgian engineers built railroads in China, bridges in Egypt, and aqueducts in Australia. The trade of Antwerp extended to the uttermost parts of the earth. Leopold improved and extended the Belgian railroad system. He also made many municipal improvements, beautifying and modernizing the capital, Brussels, as well as the city of Liege, and improving the ports of Ostend and Antwerp. He took an active interest in the working classes, and contributed generously to charities and public enterprises. In general, it may be said, he exercised his functions as King in a scrupulously constitutional manner. He was never known to interfere in international affairs, although by training and natural intellectual equipment he was an authority on international matters. During his youth he traveled extensively, and so extensive was his knowledge of world politics, and so clear his judgment, that his personal weekly letter

ALBERT I., KING OF THE BELGIANS, WHO, LAST MONTH, SUCCEEDED HIS UNCLE, THE LATE KING LEOPOLD II.

to Queen Victoria (even though the good Queen seldom replied) had at times considerable influence upon the foreign policies of the British Government.

During the reign of Leopold Belgium prospered commercially and had no serious foreign problems, aside, of course, always, from the great question of the Congo. The general tranquillity and prosperity of his reign, however, was disturbed by many labor and socialistic agitations. These difficulties were, to a certain extent, met by a gradual broadening of the suffrage, until, in 1893, the franchise right was conferred on

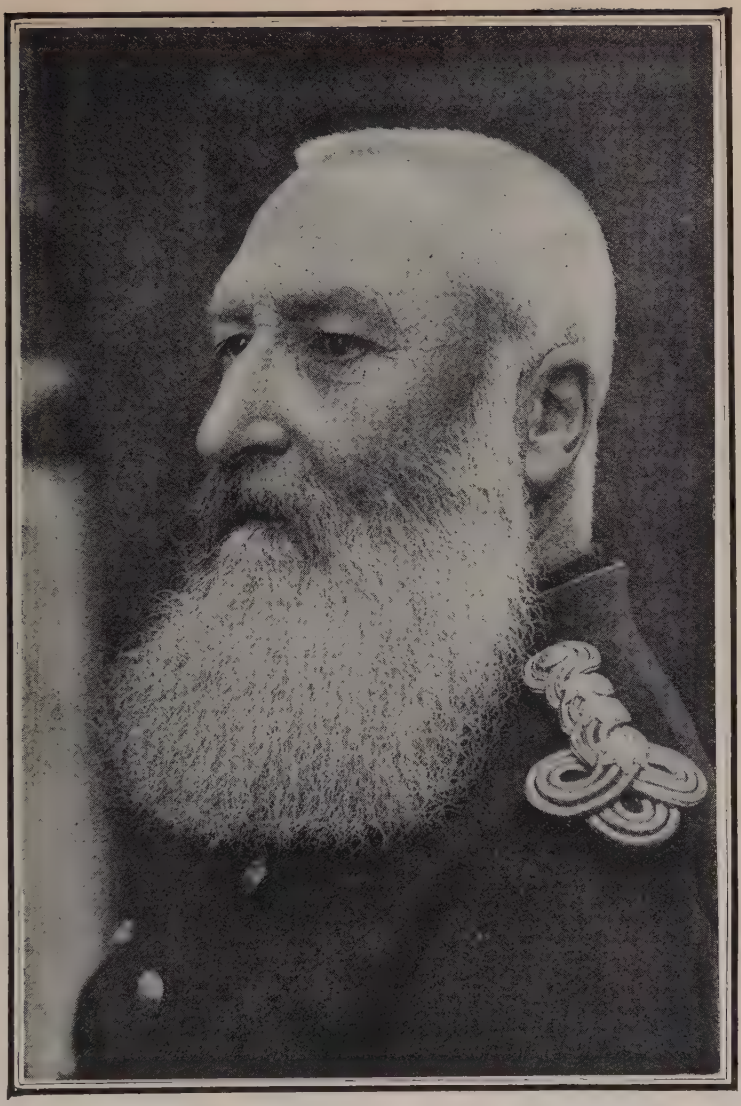
ELIZABETH THE NEW QUEEN OF THE BELGIANS

all male citizens above the age of twenty-five. The great factor of internal politics was the strife between the clerical and liberal parties. As a whole, however, the country prospered, and with its international position guaranteed by the great powers of Europe it has played a prominent part as a promoter of many international agreements on such matters as neutrality in war, arbitration, hygiene, geographical science, and the postal service.

The fact which will make King Leopold's reign a marked one in the history of the world was the founding and exploitation of the Congo Free State. In the long story of outrage, cruelty, and misery in this central African empire, and the equally long controversy with its bitter criticism and indignant defense, the following facts are undisputed history:

In 1876 Leopold succeeded in inducing the congress of geographers and explorers at Brussels to establish the African International Association to utilize African discoveries. The next year the explorer, Henry M. Stanley, was sent to Africa with the financial

backing of King Leopold. Stanley made an impressive report on the riches and vastness of the Congo basin and the perfect machinery which in a short time had been built up by the Belgian King to exploit the region. In 1884 there was called at Brussels a national conference under the title the Committee for the Study of the Upper Congo. In 1885, in accordance with the work of this committee, there was passed by the international conference at Berlin, in which fourteen powers were represented, the Great Charter of the Congo Free State, which, later, developed into the National Association of the Congo. According to the Great Charter there was to be free trade in the Congo, but no monopoly, no slavery, and no cannibalism. King Leopold was chosen sovereign. In a decree which announced this to the world it was declared that the relations between Belgium and the Congo were, and were always to remain, "purely personal."



LEOPOLD II., THE LATE KING OF THE BELGIANS
(April 9, 1835—December 17, 1909)

In his will made four years after the Berlin conference King Leopold bequeathed his Congo rights of sovereignty to the Belgian nation, and in the following year (1890), in return for the guarantee of a loan for developing the so-called Free State, the Belgian government received from the King the right to annex the Congo after a period of ten years. Owing to some opposition from England this option was not taken up in 1900, but, finally, in 1908, Belgium formally annexed the territory, the Parliament at Brussels compelling Leopold to surrender all of what was known as "the Domain of the Crown." In the developing of this region King Leopold had spent many millions of francs, some from his own private purse, but the larger portion in two loans authorized by the Belgian Parliament aggregating almost fifty millions of dollars.

For a decade or more the civilized world has been receiving tales of the most horrible cruelty and misrule from the Congo. Blood-curdling stories of outrages upon the natives, and of the horrors of slavery imposed upon them in developing the resources of that vast territory of more than 900,000 square miles

(approximately one-third the area of the United States), have been circulated upon the authority of missionaries and travelers of different nationalities. A society, international in its membership, exists for the purpose of calling the attention of the world to these abuses, and periodicals have been issued and books written to expose them to the world. Organized protest has been made in all civilized nations, and on two occasions, in 1904 and 1906, strong but ineffective efforts were made to bring about the intervention of the United States. In February, 1907, the United States Senate passed a resolution asking for international investigation of the Congo charges. Much indignation was also aroused in England and France. Meanwhile the Belgians themselves had become aroused, and the result of a long campaign in that country was the taking over of the "Free State" by the Belgian government.

In reply to all these charges the King and his defenders claimed malicious falsification, and offered the general explanation that it would be impossible to apply the rules of civilized society to the natives in the wilds of Africa. Making due allowance for exaggeration and despite great differences of opinion, it is generally agreed that there still remains a vast deal of corruption and suffering in Africa, for which the late King Leopold was responsible, and that he made a vast fortune out of his rich African concessions.

Of course the Congo was Leopold's chief business enterprise. He had many others. He had large personal interests in railroad enterprises in his own country and in China, in Japanese promotion schemes, and in nitrate fields in South America. Indeed, it may be said that he was one of the most astute business men that ever sat upon a throne.

Throughout his entire career, the late King Leopold was known as a man of unsavory personal reputation, and a ruler whose family misfortunes almost equaled those of the ill-fated Hapsburg Emperor of Austria. While his early married life seemed to be happy, it soon became evident that King Leopold held his marriage vows even more lightly than was the custom among European monarchs of his time. There was scarcely a year of his reign in which his name was not connected with some scandal, and his escapades more than once drew forth public rebukes from governmental and high social persons in his kingdom.

King Leopold's family was a most unfortunate one. His sister Carlotta was married to the ill-fated Emperor Maximilian of Mexico. A few months after the execution of her husband she became violently insane, and it was whispered that King Leopold had appropriated her estates and fortune. His only son, Leopold Ferdinand, died at the age of nine years. His eldest daughter, Princess Louise, deserted her husband, the nephew of Queen Victoria, to elope with an Austrian army officer. His second daughter, Princess Stephanie, made a widow in 1881 by the suicide of her husband, the Archduke Rudolph of Austria, later married a Hungarian count, a match to which her father declined to be reconciled. His youngest daughter, Princess Clementine, remains unmarried. The Queen, Marie Henriette, died in 1902, of a broken heart, it is believed, over her husband's neglect. An excellent characterization of the late monarch is given in a character sketch in the New York *Sun*, from which we quote the following apt paragraph:

> A good king and a bad husband and father; too tender hearted to sign the death warrant of a criminal, yet the heartless exploiter of the Congo natives; perhaps the shrewdest business man living, although the most profligate prince in Europe; up-to-date statesman, enlightened promoter of industry and commerce, art connoisseur, benefactor of his people, domestic tyrant, spendthrift, gambler, embezzler, hero of a hundred scandals in which women notorious and obscure of several great capitals figured, Leopold II., King of the Belgians, a man of contradictions, offered perhaps the most curious study in history to the analyst of character. In his public capacity he showed many qualities of greatness. In his private life he was vicious, reckless and cynical to the point of indecency. Age brought no change in him. The closing years of his life, well past threescore and ten, were marked by some of his wisest and most public-spirited acts and by at least one of his most flagrant excursions in the realm of gallantry.

WATER-POWER SITES ON THE PUBLIC DOMAIN

BY THE HON. RICHARD A. BALLINGER

(Secretary of the Interior)

NUMEROUS factors of conservation are involved in the development of water power in the arid and semi-arid regions of the West, which embrace substantially all the remaining public lands outside of Alaska. The essential factors are, (1) a saving of the natural fuels,—coal, oil, gas, and forests; (2) a lessened expense in the irrigation of agricultural lands and in securing power for mine development; (3) the restraint of flood waters and the augmenting of waters for navigation.

The long-distance transmission of hydro-electric power will always, generally speaking, be most practicable and economical in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast States since the cost of coal and other fuels for power generation will have locally prohibitive values, due chiefly to cost of labor in mining and the long hauls in transportation. This, however, is not true in all localities, as at present the low selling price of oil in Los Angeles and San Francisco removes much of the incentive for hydro-electric development in these cities.

It needs no argument to show that every horsepower developed by hydro-electric transmission conserves just that quantity of nature's fuel necessary to produce the same horsepower, not to mention the fuel used in its transportation; therefore the gain represents the saving of an exhaustible natural resource and the utilization of what would otherwise run to waste.

The natural gift of power in the waters can never be of full service until developed and stored, in countries where there are well-defined wet and dry seasons, and such development is dependent mainly upon private enterprise. Water-power development in probably the major portion of the West is impracticable from a commercial point of view unless coupled with the irrigation of arid lands, the extraction and reduction of minerals, or railway operation. The force of these statements is better understood when it is known that the maintenance of a continuous flow throughout the year in wet and dry seasons requires the impounding of flood or surplus waters. These waters so restrained thereby become in part available for irrigation during crop seasons as well as in the continuous generation of power for electrical transmission. Also thousands of motors are thus capable of use in pumping water to the surface for irrigation to an extent not feasible if fuel were necessary to create power or normal stream flow must be depended on.

Experience shows that the impounding or storage of the waters of mountain streams in the flood season necessarily retards the abnormal seasonal run off and equalizes the flow of the natural streams and rivers, preventing inundation of lands in one season of the year and augmenting river flow in other seasons of low waters, thereby increasing the facilities for navigation.

Those whose environment leads them to think only of densely populated regions, busy with all manner of industrial pursuits, little realize the absurdity of the development of water power on streams in a wilderness or many hundreds of miles from large centers of population and industrial activity, except for purposes of irrigation, mining, or railway operation, as, for instance, there can be no possible incentive in a commercial sense in the present development of hydro-electric power for other purposes on the Shoshone River in Wyoming, or the Flathead River in Idaho, and the same is true of many of the great power possibilities of a large number of other Rocky Mountain streams. No cities lie within reach of these streams through power transmission. In a word, there are not to-day settlements capable of economically utilizing many such power possibilities unless coupled with the uses above mentioned. This, however, is no reason for the power sites being permitted to pass beyond public control, as the future may require the development of all their potentialities.

We seem to be in a measure at the threshold of hydro-electric development on the public domain, and much depends upon the right solution of these problems, and especially upon the legislation governing the disposition of power sites on the public lands.

In my recent annual report to the President I have said on this subject:

In anticipation of new legislation by Congress to prevent the acquisition of power sites on the public domain by private persons or corporations with the view of monopolizing or adversely controlling them against the public interest, there have been temporarily withdrawn from all forms of entry approximately 603,355 acres, covering all locations known to possess power possibilities on unappropriated lands outside of national forests. Without such withdrawals these sites would be enterable under existing laws, and their patenting would leave the general Government powerless to impose any limitations as to their use.

If the federal Government desires to exercise control or supervision over water-power development on the public domain, it can only do so by limitations imposed upon the disposal of power and reservoir sites upon the public lands, the waters of the streams being subject to State jurisdiction in their appropriation and beneficial use. I would therefore advise that Congress be asked to enact a measure that will authorize the classification of all lands capable of being used for water-power development, and to direct their disposal, through this department, under substantially the following conditions:

1. That the title to such lands be reserved in the federal Government, and only an easement granted for the purpose of developing and transmitting electrical power for private and public use, and for the storage of waters for power, irrigation, and other uses;

2. That such easement be granted for a limited period, with a maximum of at least thirty years, and the option of renewal for stated periods upon agreed terms;

3. That entry shall be accompanied by plans and specifications covering the works sought to be installed, and covering the maximum horsepower capable of development at such site; also, that a substantial entry fee be paid to show good faith, and that a transfer to the United States of the necessary water rights to permit of the estimated power development be made;

4. That the construction period allowed entrymen for the development of at least 25 per cent. of such power shall not extend beyond four years, or such further time as may be granted by the Secretary of the Interior upon a proper showing;

5. That a moderate charge shall be made on the capital invested, or upon the gross earnings of the project for the first ten years of operation, adjusted at each subsequent ten-year period, and equitably determined by appraisement;

6. That all rights and easements shall be forfeitable for failure to make development within the limitations imposed, or upon entry into any contract or combination to charge or fix rates beyond a reasonable profit on the investment and cost of operation, or entry into any agreement or combination to limit the supply of electrical current, or failure to operate the plant; and,

7. That all books and accounts shall always be subject to the inspection of the department.

Unreasonable or narrow restrictions beyond the necessity of public protection against monopoly, or extortion in charges, will, of course, defeat development and serve no useful purpose. The statute should, therefore, while giving full public protection against the abuses of the privileges extended, so far as consistent encourage investment in these projects; and it must always be borne in mind that excessive charges for the franchise will fall upon the consumer. Legislation of this character proceeds upon the theory that Congress can impose such contractural terms and conditions as it sees fit in the sale or use permitted of Government lands, so long as such limitations do not conflict with the powers properly exercised by the State wherein they may be situated.

The statement made under condition three of the quotation that "a transfer to the United States of the necessary water rights to permit of the estimated power development be made," is intended to reach the necessity of making the water rights appurtenant to the lands for the better security of the Government in case of the forfeiture of the easement. This provision would be of no consequence in States where the local laws make the waters appurtenant upon appropriation.

The essential features of such proposed legislation are not so much in time limitations and in the rates and charges imposed for the use or privilege as in preserving a reasonable control and supervision that will not retard the investment of capital, but will guard against the *abuse* of the privilege accorded by the Government.

Each drop of water that falls in California, Nevada, Arizona, and several other of our Western States and Territories is needed for distribution upon the agricultural lands they contain. Many of these areas can be watered only by the utilization of the power possibilities of the sources of water supply under as high a head or pressure as physical conditions will permit. The rich valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers and the untilled valleys of the Colorado River will in time have devoted to their best use all available sources of water supply and the world and humanity will thereby become permanently enriched, and so it must be with the plain and the desert wherever they can be married to the water from the mountains.

FIFTH AVENUE FACADE OF THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART, NEW YORK
(Extensions already planned will make this one of the largest art museums in the world)

ART ACTIVITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT

THE news published last month that the Boston Museum of Fine Arts had opened one of the most commodious art galleries in the United States, if not in the world, brought home vividly to the American people certain important activities in the field of art patronage and art education in this country. Developments have been going on quietly for some years.

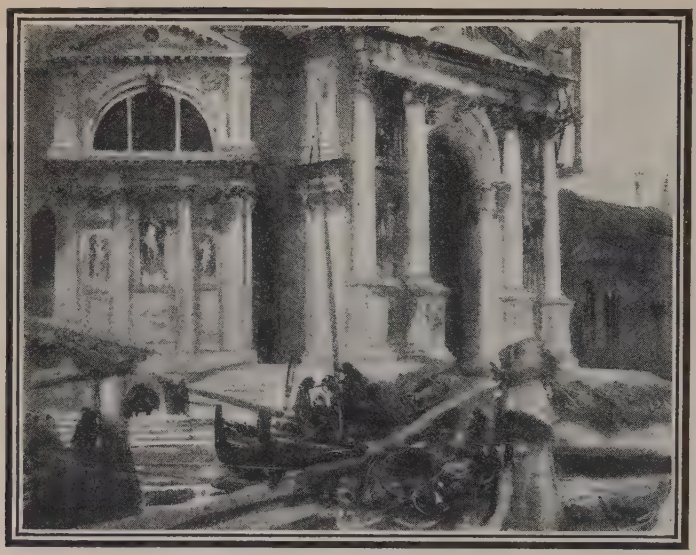
First, in January, 1906, came the news that Charles L. Freer, of Detroit, had presented his entire art collection to the Government, to be placed in Washington at his death. Then came the news that William T. Evans, of New York, had given to the national Government a carefully selected collection of American paintings. These will be shown in the galleries of the new National Museum in Washington this month. Last winter the Academy of Design petitioned the Legislature (unsuccessfully) for a site in Central Park for a permanent exhibition gallery. Recently it became known that the American Academy in Rome is endeavoring to raise an endowment of one million dollars ($1,000,000) for the extension of its educational work. We also hear of the advance that has been made in the movement on foot in Cleveland for the erection of a large art gallery and school.

One of the most significant recent events that has set people to thinking upon the value of art patronage occurred last year when the art world witnessed a remarkable phenomenon in the meteoric success of the Spanish painter Sorolla, an exhibition of whose work was held in the little Spanish Museum in New York City. Of similar import were the exhibition of German art held at the Metropolitan Museum in the spring and the Hudson-Fulton exhibition held there in the autumn. The successes of these three exhibitions aroused public interest in the function of an art museum.

THE FUNCTION OF A MUSEUM IN AROUSING PUBLIC INTEREST IN ART

Few people realize how effective a museum may be in arousing interest in works of art. The Sorolla exhibition was an especially striking example of this.

At the beginning of last season in New



"SANTA MARIA DELLA SALUTE"

(A water-color by John S. Sargent in the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. A museum exhibition that might be set up in antithesis to Sorolla's is that of the Sargent water-colors, recently bought by the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. These sketches not only evince the good taste of the American artist at his best, but they mark the advance that color observation has made in recent times. The sketches will stand for many years to come as the very perfection of water-color treatment; and their acquisition by the Brooklyn Museum, —thanks to President Healy,—is an event not easily overestimated)

though he has clear vision, is sorely lacking in good taste, does not matter. Every one felt that the efficacy of a museum was fully tested and had proved a brilliant success.

Yet it was amusing, if not sad, to see people enthuse over such garish color, apparently ignorant of our American painters who, like Weir, Hassam, Metcalf, Thayer, and Lothrop, are never guilty of such banal coloring, but really excel Sorolla in color effects, as Whistler excelled Frith.

SOME PRIVATE COLLECTIONS

Probably the very foremost art patron in the United States is Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, and there is a general impression that his large collection of antiques will eventually find its way into our museums. His recent gift to the Metropolitan Museum of the "Hoentschel collection," that was formerly in the possession of the Paris architect and decorator, George Hoentschel, consisted of three hundred and sixty-four packing cases, contain-

York probably not one layman out of a thousand had ever heard of Sorolla, or ten out of a hundred had ever heard of the Hispanic Museum. A few weeks after the exhibition was opened thousands of people were finding their way to Washington Heights, and crowding the museum to suffocation. Some nights it was necessary to let in the crowds in relays, and before a few months had passed there was hardly a person in the city who had any remote interest in art but had seen the collection of pictures by this Spanish artist. Moreover, for the most part, these visitors were enthusiastic in their admiration.

Whether or not one believes, as many artists and critics do, that Sorolla is a great master, or whether one believes that the painter is only a second-class artist, who,

THE BROOKLYN INSTITUTE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

WALTERS ART GALLERY, BALTIMORE

(In Baltimore the famous "Walters collection," now owned by Henry Walters, Esq., but originally owned by his father, William T. Walters, is open to the public during the Lenten season each year. Mr. Walters was an early buyer of Barbizon pictures, and the collection includes some beautiful Millets in oils and pastels; it also comprises some rare Barye bronzes, and superb examples of Oriental pottery.)

ing examples of both casts and genuine antiques,—in the way of wood-carving, furniture, and interior decorations from the Gothic times through the eighteenth century. This collection will soon be on exhibition in the Metropolitan Museum.

Mr. Morgan has also built himself a private gallery in New York, where he will house some of his most valuable art treasures.

Mrs. John Gardner, of Boston, has become a public benefactor in that she opens her house to the public a portion of the time each year, where may be seen rare examples of Rembrandt, Velasquez, and Whistler.

THE FREER COLLECTION AS A KEY-NOTE OF EXCELLENCE

From the viewpoint of taste the Charles L. Freer collection already referred to, though not a large one, is one of supreme excellence. It is perhaps the most important collection ever made in this or any other country, in modern times,—from the fact that it comprises art of the most advanced and refined character. When placed in Washington it will be a lesson for the American people, and will mark a standard of excellence that art in the future will have to reach in order to command recognition.

PRESIDENT JOHN TYLER

(By Geo. P. A. Healy: now in the Smithsonian Institution.)

The whole collection forms a sort of symphony in form and color. It is an object-lesson in that harmony which a collector may obtain by selecting from the very best art of all countries. A Whistler, a Dewing, a Chinese vase, a Japanese enamel, a Hokusai drawing, are placed near one another. Yet they all harmonize because they are the work of synthetic artists, who have selected from nature only what is beautiful and have used their mediums beautifully.

"A KAKEMONO," BY HOKUSAI

(From the Freer Collection.)

Such a collection is a hundredfold more valuable to a nation than such collections as the "Wolf collection" in the Metropolitan Museum, with its Bouguereaus, Cots, and Meyer von Bremens. The Evans pictures are likewise of a high standard of excellence, being by such painters as La Farge, Homer, Tryon, Dewing, Thayer, and Twachtman.

Mr. Hearn's recent gifts of American paintings to the Metropolitan Museum,—the Homers, the Weir, the Chase, the Hassam, and the Thayer, are of the same caliber as the Freer and Evans pictures.

LOANS FROM PRIVATE COLLECTIONS

Then there are collectors who loan pictures to clubs and special exhibitions where a limited public see them, as at the monthly exhibitions of the Union League, the Lotos, and Century Clubs, and occasional exhibitions at the Democratic and Engineers' Club in New York. Here, we see choice

THE CINCINNATI MUSEUM OF ART

canvases from the collection of W. T. Evans, Dr. Alexander C. Humphries, and Samuel Untermyer. These exhibitions are frequently of vital help to our younger painters, inasmuch as they often see their own canvas hung side by side with the work of such veterans as Martin, Inness, Wyant, Blakelock, and Twachtman. It is not saying too much to assert that this broad policy of the Lotos Club has had much to do with raising the standard of the work of the younger men, such as Bogart, Dessar, Dougherty, Daingerfield, Lathrop, Williams, and Yates.

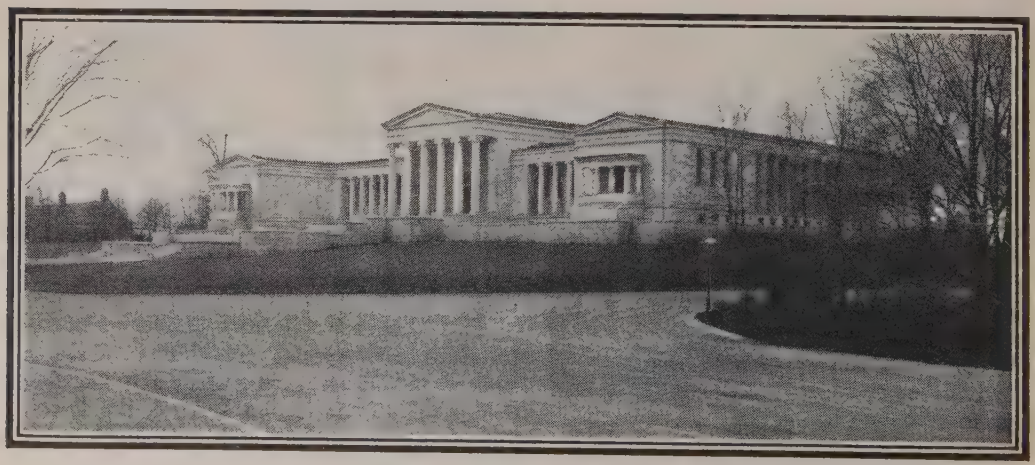
INFLUENCES THAT HAVE BROUGHT ABOUT CRYSTALLIZATION

The World's Fairs, such as the exhibitions in Philadelphia, in 1876, in Chicago, in 1893, and in St. Louis, in 1904, and the Pan American in Buffalo, in 1901, have taught us to compare our own art with that of Europe, and to profit by the comparison.

Art treasures, too, that came to these exhibitions have often found a permanent home here. The Chicago World's Fair left its art building to become the Field Museum and the St. Louis Exposition left its art building to the St. Louis Museum of Fine Arts. A number of plaster casts also of the Fair statues found their way into the Museum's permanent collection; just as a number of casts from the Trocadero that were sent from Paris to the World's Fair at Chicago, in 1893, afterward went to the Art Institute.

THE PLAN OF THE MUSEUM IN GENERAL

The usual plan of an art museum is to emphasize the historic progress of the arts. Generally on the lower floors are collections

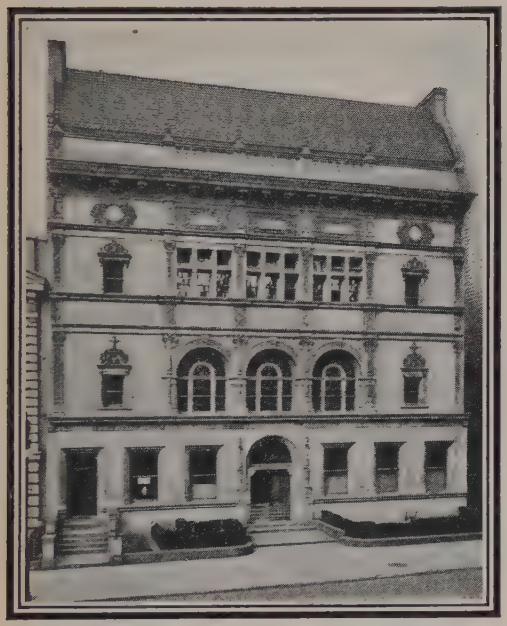


THE ALBRIGHT ART GALLERY, BUFFALO

(Eight caryatids by St. Gaudens support the entablatures. The late Charles M. Kurtz was the first director)

of Assyrian, Greek, and Roman architecture and sculpture, and from these lead stairways to rooms devoted to the Renaissance, and then to modern sculpture and painting. The arrangement of the Antique and Medieval sculpture is usually in chronological order, but American sculpture has very often had to wedge its way in, in haphazard style.

It was, we believe, first in Chicago, and later in St. Louis, that genuine fostering was bestowed upon American sculpture; and many monuments, by St. Gaudens, French,

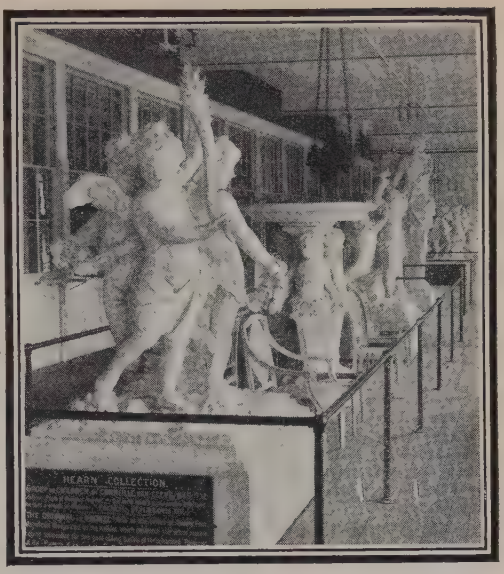


THE AMERICAN FINE ARTS BUILDING, NEW YORK

(There are societies that do not conduct art schools, but simply exhibit annually at the Fine Arts Building, in New York City. Here are held the annual exhibitions of the Academy (which in 1896 consolidated with the Society of American Artists), of the Architectural League, the American Water Color Society, and the New York Water Color Club, and occasionally the exhibitions of the National Sculpture Society. In the upper floors are held the classes of the Art Students' League.)

Barnard, and others scattered about the United States, are represented in the Chicago and the St. Louis museums by the original plaster models or by replicas.

In regard to exhibiting the Arts and Crafts there has been, up to this time, generally very little systematic guardianship. If handicraft objects come the way of the museum they are put in cases without very explicit labels. But recently, in Chicago, the Art Institute allows the Arts and Crafts Society to exhibit within its walls, and the



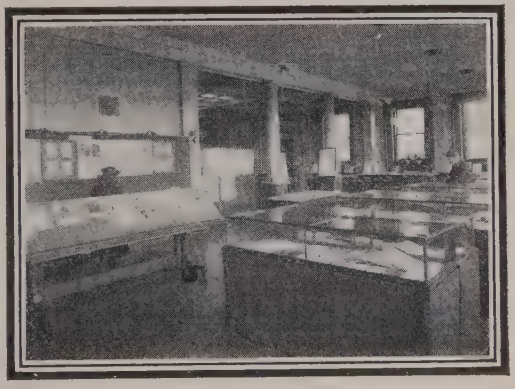
MUSEUM OF THE COOPER UNION ART SCHOOL, NEW YORK

(In connection with the Cooper Union Art School in New York there is a very interesting museum, not well enough known to the public. In it are some rare examples of the industrial arts, as is the case in the Museum of the Pennsylvania School of Industrial Art. There is need of more museums of this kind, where there should be models of tapestry looms, wood-carving in the different stages of finish, of metal in different stages of repoussé, and clay models and finished marbles showing how sculpture is made.)

Herron Institute of Indianapolis also holds regular Arts and Crafts Exhibitions.

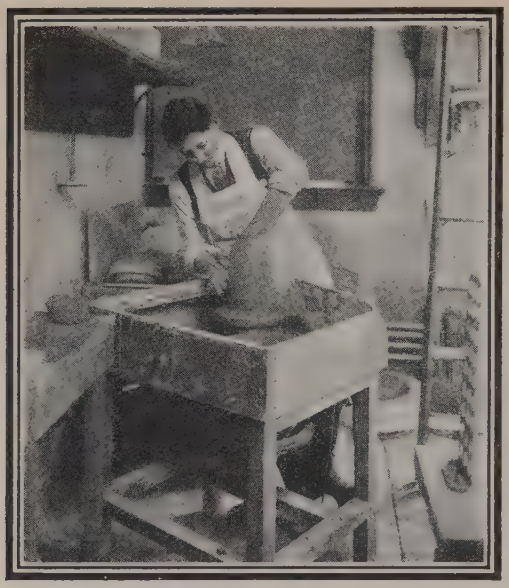
SOME PROBLEMS OF MUSEUM MANAGEMENT

The segregating of collections according to countries and periods is to prevail in



A PERMANENT ENGRAVING EXHIBIT

(Showing method of arranging a printing exhibition in the Free Public Library, Newark, N. J.)



A STUDENT OF POTTERY
(In the Mechanics Institute, Rochester, N. Y.)

the new Boston Museum of Art; which will be a collection of small buildings each devoted to the art of one country; Egyptian art in one building, Grecian in another. From the historic scholar's viewpoint this is an ideal arrangement, for he thus sees at a glance that a nation's art instinct expresses itself not only in sculpture and painting alone but in all kinds of form, from architecture through to the minor arts.

The catalogue of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, it may be remarked, arranged chronologically and luxuriantly illustrated, is a perfect example of what an art museum catalogue should be. One may take it home and put it on his shelf with his encyclopedias and text-books, and refer to it many times after, as he would refer to a standard history of art.

In time, we shall doubtless see more mutual organization among our art institutions. There will be exchange of professors and lecturers paid from a common fund. Already in Chicago and Philadelphia the schools have arranged with New York instructors like Chase, Low, and Mucha for short courses. The lecture courses in Chicago are admirable, including the best speakers in the country.

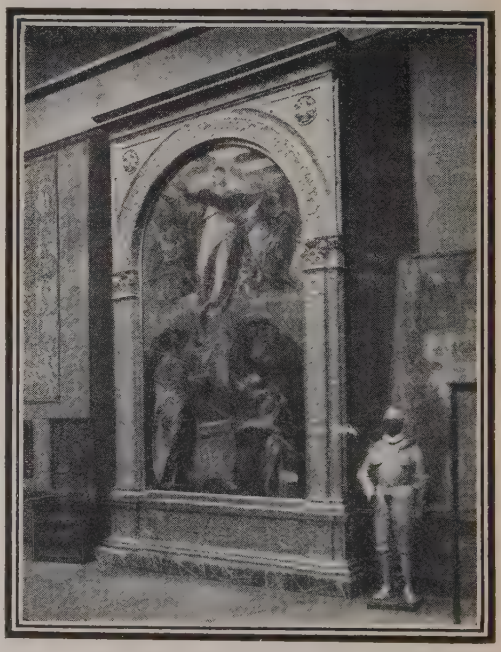
Traveling exhibitions are now fairly well organized in the West; Buffalo, Chicago, St. Louis, and Pittsburg have recently seen collections of the Glasgow school, the German Secessionists, the work of Sorolla and Zualago, that could not have been imported had one museum alone borne the expense of bringing the pictures here.

An art museum or institution does well to apply its machinery to practical uses, and to adjust itself to environment.

When some twenty years ago Professor Ives, of the St. Louis art school, took the pains to form a collection of stoneware products because of their possible influence on the clay industries of Missouri, and gave Sunday talks to the workmen of the neighboring potteries, which he illustrated with the stoneware specimens, he thus utilized a function of a museum that is too often neglected by art directors.

In many of our colleges a lecture course in the history of art often fails to make an impression upon the students. It would be much wiser for these colleges to offer practical courses, and make the pupils actually master some minor branch of the arts.

Perhaps the most successful application of this principle of practical instruction has been made in Newcomb College, the Art Department of Tulane University of Louisiana, at New Orleans. The graduates of the college are not full-fledged painters or art critics, but they have at least the satisfaction



"THE ASSUMPTION OF THE VIRGIN"
(By El Greco. Owned by the Art Institute of Chicago)

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WILLIAM M CHASE GIVING A "TALK" TO HIS PAINTING CLASS AT THE ART STUDENTS' LEAGUE, NEW YORK.

(The Art Students' League was organized some twenty-five years ago by a body of students, mostly from the Academy Schools, who were dissatisfied with the methods of teaching there. The school has been from the beginning self-supporting, and without endowment, though a few prizes have been presented by interested patrons. For a number of years the League held supremacy as the representative art school of the country; such men as William M. Chase, Carrol Beckwith, Walter Shirlaw, Kenyon Cox, George De Forest Brush having been among its instructors.)

of understanding thoroughly the applied arts, such as pottery, embroidery, metal work, rug weaving, dyeing, etc. Probably no Arts and Crafts school in the country has shown such excellence in its output. Prof. E. Woodward, director of the Art Department, thus explains the admirable purpose of this school:

> The Art-Craft Building has become a clearing-house of all art school products and thus the old Italian bottega idea of keeping a shop, so to speak, finds a sort of reflection in our work. . . . I am interested to see that the commercial idea so far from influencing the art product adversely has unquestionably improved it.

At Alfred Center, New York, Prof. F. Binns teaches his ceramic students to be chemists as well as modelers and designers. They know the pottery process from A to Z. Leon Volkmar, a pupil of his father, the pioneer potter, teaches the same scientific principles in the School of Industrial Art of the Pennsylvania Museum. This school, of which Leslie W. Miller has long been principal, conducts large classes in carpet weaving, and almost all the branches of applied design, as well as in illustrating, drawing, and painting. It is affiliated with the Museum, in Memorial Hall, Fairmount Park, which is under the charge of Edwin Atlee Barber, who makes a specialty of collecting early American pottery.

In New York, the National Society of Craftsmen has rooms in the building of the National Arts Club. The club, of which

THE CORCORAN GALLERY OF ART, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Spencer Trask is President, and Charles de Kay an active member, interests itself in all New York art matters, and exhibits regularly the work of painters, sculptors, and more especially of craftsmen.

TEACHING OF THE ARTS AND CRAFTS

The Arts and Crafts movement has indeed permeated to the elementary schools and the kindergartens. The child is no longer limited to drawing cubes or spheres or to pencil lines. But the fingers that to-day hold the pencil to portray a floral form, may to-morrow model in wax or clay, or the next day cut in wood with a knife. In such schools as the Ethical Culture School in New York one sees art work closely correlated with all the other studies.

The exhibition held under the auspices of the National Art Teaching Association two years ago at the Museum of Natural History, New York, and afterwards in London, showed how widespread was this correlating of drawing, coloring, and modeling with other forms of study, while the principles of decorative design and composition are taught more scientifically to-day than ever before, thanks to Prof. Arthur W. Dow, who at the Pratt Institute and the Teachers College has long conducted a strenuous course of Normal work, influencing art teaching far and wide. The Pratt Institute, under the directorship of Prof. Walter Scott Perry, gives practical instruction in the arts and crafts to thousands of pupils.

THE PRATT INSTITUTE, BROOKLYN

In some of our art schools, as the Art Institute in Chicago, as soon as the students have learned the rudiments of their art some practical application of it is made. For example, the students in the mural decoration class are given some large historical paintings to execute for the public schools. Seeing these in place upon the walls proves most beneficial to the pupils.

Mr. Lorado Taft, who has charge of the sculpture class at the Institute, is a strong believer in giving his pupils an opportunity to work in unison with

THE CHICAGO ART INSTITUTE

LAYTON ART GALLERY, MILWAUKEE

THE PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL OF DESIGN FOR WOMEN

ART SCHOOL OF H. SOPHIE NEWCOMB MEMORIAL COLLEGE, TULANE UNIVERSITY, NEW ORLEANS

THE CLEVELAND SCHOOL OF ART

GIBBES MEMORIAL ART BUILDING, CHARLESTON, S. C.

THE PENNSYLVANIA MUSEUM, PHILADELPHIA

him. They worked together in modeling a "Nymph Fountain," "Primitive Burial," and "An Incident in the Temple," and helped Mr. Taft considerably in the final group of "The Blind." Mr. Taft appropriately calls his class-room "The Bottega"; that is, a room where the students work together with the master, as they worked in the studios of the masters of the Renaissance.

It is a mistake for a student to think that New York offers the best opportunity for study. There are dozens of art institutions

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THE SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL ART OF THE PENNSYLVANIA MUSEUM, PHILADELPHIA

THE JOHN HERRON ART INSTITUTE, INDIANAPOLIS

THE MARYLAND INSTITUTE, BALTIMORE

throughout the country whose standard is equally high. The work done in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, in Philadel-

ARCHITECTURAL HALL OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE, PITTSBURG

THE NEW YORK SCHOOL OF APPLIED DESIGN FOR WOMEN

Photograph by Paul Thompson, N. Y.
THE NEW BOSTON MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS OPENED TO THE PUBLIC IN NOVEMBER, 1909

phia, Chicago, and St. Louis is of an academic standard quite on a par with the high standards of the French schools.

FOREIGN SCHOLARSHIPS AVAILABLE

Columbia University teaches architecture and the University of Pennsylvania and Harvard College give degrees for courses of study in Art History.

The traveling fellowships connected with many university courses are numerous, giving the student opportunities of studying in Paris, at the American School at Rome, at the American School at Athens, or of traveling in Europe and the East.

Decorative painting, sculpture, and architecture are studied in the American School at Rome, of which Frederic Crowninshield has just been appointed art director.

The general art student as well as the art craftsman often gains much benefit from the art departments in the libraries. Frank Weitenkampf, Curator of the Print Department of the New York Public Library, arranges exhibitions of Whistler etchings, Daumier lithographs, and Japanese wood-cuts that are highly instructive to students in graphic arts. In many libraries photographs of paintings and architecture are available.

THE CITY ART MUSEUM, ST. LOUIS

Other influences working for the general art improvement are: The American Federation of Arts, with headquarters at Washington, of which F. D. Millet is secretary; the American Chapter of Architects, of which Glenn Brown is secretary, with its headquarters also in Washington; the Municipal Art Societies of New York and many other cities, the Society of Beaux-Arts Architects, which has established a course of study, modeled on the French system. While the directors and curators who are working to build up our museums and schools (besides those mentioned in our article) must not go unnamed. Among these are: J. H. Gest, of the Cincinnati Museum; William Henry Fox, of the John Herron Art Institute; James Simons, of the Gibbes Memorial Art Building; Mrs. Dunlop Hopkins, founder of the New York School of Applied Design for Women; Emily Sartain, of the Philadelphia School of Design for Women; Frank von der Lancken, of the Mechanics' Institute, Rochester; Miss G. I. Norton, of the Cleveland School of Art; George Raab, of the Layton Art Gallery; Frederick Dielman, of Cooper Union Art School; Frederick B. McGuire, of Corcoran Gallery of Art; Arthur Fairbanks, of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts; William M. R. French, of the Art Institute, Chicago; John M. Beatty, of the Carnegie Institute; William H. Goodyear, of the Art Institute, Brooklyn; James MacAllister, of the Drexel Institute, Philadelphia; A. H. Griffith, of the Detroit Museum of Art; George W. Stevens, of the Toledo Museum of Art; James Frederick Hopkins, of the Maryland Institute; J. C. Dana, Librarian of the Newark Public Library, and Miss Cornelia B. Sage, Assistant Director of the Albright Art Gallery.

RUSSIA'S FINANCIAL CONDITION

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG

IT is scarcely two hundred years since Russia, under the tutelage of Peter the Great, began her career as a member of the European family of nations, and all of the notable landmarks in the financial history of the empire fall within the period since the middle of the eighteenth century. It was, indeed, in the second half of that century, covered largely by the reign of the Empress Catherine II., that the nation was set upon the high road of public finance that has led straight to the two and a half billion ruble budget and the ten billion ruble* indebtedness of 1909. Here commenced, in the first place, the rapid and inevitable piling up of imperial expenditures. Then began also, with the establishment in 1762 of a bank authorized to issue assignats, a system of paper currency which was destined to be the bane of Russian finance until at least well down into our own day. To this same period one traces the origins of the national debt and the inauguration of Russia's interminable series of foreign loans.

EARLY APPEARANCE OF DEFICITS

Deficits began to appear in the crude budgets of Peter the Great, but it remained for Catherine to introduce the policy of systematic borrowing. The first Russian loan to be floated in a foreign market was negotiated in 1769 to defray the cost of Catherine's first Turkish war. The loan was brought out by two bankers of Amsterdam. It was to be repaid in thirty years and the security offered for it comprised the revenues of the two provinces of Esthonia and Livonia, together with the duties collected at the four ports of Riga, Pernau, Reval, and Narva. Under this arrangement the Russian Government received, during the decade 1769-1779, the sum of 10,000,000 florins, at an interest rate of 8½ per cent. After 1779 loans were negotiated at Amsterdam almost every year, the rate of interest falling occasionally as low as 4 per cent.

Russian financial history thereafter became one long story of mounting expenditures, accumulating indebtedness, and ineffectual attempts at reform, culminating inevitably in new loans and fresh issues of paper. In 1820 the government began to borrow in London through the Barings and in 1822 in Paris through the Rothschilds.

Although the Napoleonic wars had subjected Russian credit to something of a strain, pushing up the interest rate for a time to 7.3 per cent., the English and French loans of the twenties were easily placed at what had come to be the customary rate on the Amsterdam bourse,—namely, 5 per cent. By 1844 loans were being negotiated at 4⅓ per cent., and not even the Crimean War raised the rate beyond 5½ and 6. None the less, Russian finances during that war and at the close of it were in a desperate condition. The war cost well over a billion rubles and the deficits for the four years, 1853-1856, amounted to 796,770,000 rubles. Loans were floated every year, accompanied by heavy issues of paper, so that on January 1, 1857, the interest-bearing indebtedness (foreign and domestic) was 533,273,782 rubles, while the quantity of paper in circulation was 689,279,844 rubles.

Some idea of the direction in which the nation was drifting during the middle of the century may be gathered from the estimate that in the two decades, 1845-1865, the revenues increased 84 per cent. and the expenditures 300 per cent. The public debt grew at the rate of 50,000,000 rubles per year, and in 1866 it stood at the enormous total of 1,693,962,000 rubles. The Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878 was another period of financial stress, the total costs of that struggle aggregating, by January 1, 1880, the sum of 1,020,578,489 rubles. They were met in part by increased taxation, in part by loans negotiated at Amsterdam and Paris, but largely by new issues of paper.

BORROWING TO MEET REGULAR EXPENDITURES

Meanwhile, since the middle of the century, the ordinary expenditures of the government had been increasing more rapidly than the corresponding revenues, with the result that money had to be borrowed not alone to meet extraordinary demands, but

* The Russian ruble is equivalent to a little more than 51 cents in American currency.

also to cover deficits in the ordinary budget. In 1850 the ordinary expenditure alone was 287,000,000 rubles; in 1860 it was 438,000,000, and in 1870, 563,000,000. The augmentation has continued without interruption to our own day. The budget for 1909 contemplates an outlay of 2,472,200,000 rubles,—triple the amount for 1880 and more than double that for 1890.

Closely paralleling this growth of ordinary expenditure during the past fifty years has been the rise of expenditures classed as extraordinary (aggregating 10,415,000,000 rubles between 1886 and 1906) and the mounting of the public debt to its present astounding proportions. On January 1, 1886, the debt stood at 5,200,000,000 rubles, divided among the three principal branches of extraordinary expenditure approximately as follows: War, 2,000,000,000 rubles; railway exploitation, 2,300,000,000, and the agrarian operations of the government consequent upon the emancipation of the serfs in 1861, 742,000,000 rubles. On January 1, 1901, the amount of the debt was 6,550,000,000 rubles. January 1, 1908, it stood at 9,800,000,000 rubles, of which 4,800,000,000 represented outlay upon war, 3,000,000,000 upon railways, and 1,225,000,000 upon land banks and agrarian activities.

IMMENSE FOREIGN LOANS

Growing disparity between revenues and expenditures, coupled with the exceptional scarcity of free capital in the empire, has for decades been driving the government of the Czar to the increasingly frequent negotiation of foreign loans. First it was to the bourse of Amsterdam that recourse was had, then to the bankers of Genoa, and eventually to those of London, Paris, and Berlin. From the middle of the past century until 1887 Russian securities were held principally in Germany. Then came a change. Under the inspiration of Bismarck the German press predicted the speedy bankruptcy of Russia and the Reichsbank was forbidden to negotiate Russian loans. Panic seized upon the German investors and they promptly disposed of their holdings at a loss. As a matter of fact, Bismarck was rather unaccountably playing into the hands of France, where millions of capital were seeking just such outlet as Russia afforded.

There happened to be political as well as economic reasons for a Franco-Russian *rapprochement,* and the upshot was the inauguration, in December, 1888, of a remarkable series of loans, which during the past twenty years has piled up a French investment in Russia (including municipal loans and industrial enterprises) estimated at all the way from 9,000,000,000 to 12,000,000,000 francs, or approximately one-third of all French capital invested abroad. Of the 9,800,000,000 rubles of Russian indebtedness to-day, something like 3,500,000,000 are held in France, about 4,000,000,000 by subjects of the Czar, and the remainder in England, Germany, Holland, and other countries.

COST OF THE WAR WITH JAPAN

The most serious strain imposed upon Russian finances during the present generation was, of course, that occasioned by the war with Japan and the domestic disorders which followed upon the Russian defeat. The outlay for the war in 1904 amounted to 676,800,000 rubles and in 1905 to slightly less than 1,000,000,000. This enormous expenditure was met by a variety of expedients. At the beginning of 1904 there was, fortunately enough, a free balance in the Treasury of 381,300,000 rubles. By reducing, and in some cases entirely canceling, various grants in the budget for the year (the revenue receipts also being favorable) the excess of ordinary revenue over ordinary expenditure was brought up to 111,400,000 rubles. Five per cent. Treasury bonds and 3.6 per cent. Treasury bills yielded 382,000,000, while other extraordinary receipts (exclusive of loans) amounted to 3,300,000 rubles. The aggregate resources for covering extraordinary expenditure amounted during the year to 895,000,000 rubles, of which 676,800,000 was actually used for the war and the remainder chiefly for railroad construction. In 1905 an aggregate of extraordinary expenditure amounting to 1,068,000,000 rubles was covered by the realization of 4½ per cent. loans (209,500,000 rubles) and 5 per cent. interior loans and Treasury bills (141,700,000 rubles), realization of the balance of the 3.6 per cent. Exchequer bills issued in 1904 (50,000,000 rubles), and the remainder of the free balance of the treasury from 1904 (61,800,000 rubles), and an issue of short-term Treasury bills authorized by decree of December 9, 1905 (400,000,000 rubles). To swell the ordinary revenues a decree of December 31, 1904, laid an increased tax on a number of products and commercial operations.

In 1904 the resources of the government were supplemented by a loan of 300,000,000

rubles floated at 5 per cent. in Paris. Foreign loans at 4½ and 5 per cent. in 1905 aggregated 381,500,000 rubles, including the 150,000,000 raised at 4½ per cent. in Berlin. In 1906, in consequence of the restoration of peace and in view of the prospective establishment of constitutional government, Russian credit revived, and in April of that year the government was able to secure a loan of 893,250,000 rubles at 5 per cent., floated principally in Paris, but also in part in London, Berlin, Vienna, Amsterdam, and St. Petersburg.

FIRST LOAN AUTHORIZED BY THE DUMA

The most recent of the Russian loans is that which was brought out in Paris during the past May. In December, 1908, the Duma authorized Finance Minister Kokovsov to borrow 560,000,000 rubles to meet 300,000,000 rubles of 5 per cent. Treasury bonds issued in 1904 and to cover a deficit in the extraordinary budget of 1909, occasioned chiefly by the outlay on railroads and the army. Of the total, only 240,000,000 rubles was to represent new money, the remainder being merely in the nature of a conversion. The issue price was fixed at 89¼, with interest at 4½ per cent., and it was agreed that of the total amount 60,000,000 rubles should be reserved for London and 20,000,000 for Holland, while the remaining 480,000,000 should be floated in France. Underwriters in London displayed much eagerness to take up the loan, and the subscriptions amounted to six times the capital required. In France the investing public had eagerly awaited the loan, and so heavy were the applications that only from 1 to 2 per cent. of the amounts applied for could be allotted. The readiness with which French capital flows into other countries, chiefly Russia, for investment received yet another striking illustration. Voices of warning are occasionally heard, but on the whole the French investor still maintains unimpaired confidence in Russian bonds. The issuing houses in Paris make a handsome profit. And so vast an amount of French capital is sunk in Russian securities and Russian industrial exploitation that the French financiers would not dare withhold fresh loans should it be even hinted that such assistance had become vital to the maintenance of Russian solvency.

WITTE'S CURRENCY REFORM

Until comparatively recent years Russian fiscal development has been seriously impeded by a wretched currency system. It remained for M. Witte, upon assuming the office of Minister of Finance in 1893, to regenerate the system of securing the stability of the ruble and by substituting the gold standard for the depreciated paper currency. Witte's predecessor, Vishnigradski, had prepared the way by hoarding up a gold reserve of 236,248,745 rubles. After putting an end to the speculation in rubles at Berlin, Witte, in 1895, secured sanction for transactions at the exchange rate of 1½ credit rubles for 1 gold ruble, and for a new arrangement under which payments were to be made to the Treasury in gold. In 1897 the reform of the currency was completed by the adoption of the gold ruble as the monetary unit,—a new sort of gold ruble, however, equal in exchange value to the credit ruble, not to the old gold ruble.

ADOPTION OF THE GOLD STANDARD

The establishment of the gold standard has, however, entailed upon the Russian Finance Ministry an exceedingly difficult problem,—that, namely, of keeping up the gold reserve in the face of an unfavorable balance of trade and a perpetual "tribute of gold," in the form of interest payments, to other countries. The only real solution that has been discovered is the very dubious one of contracting foreign loans and selling Russian bonds and securities abroad.

THE RUSSIAN BANK SYSTEM

The history of banking in Russia begins with the opening of banks in St. Petersburg and Moscow early in the second half of the eighteenth century, but meager development was realized before the establishment of the State Bank in 1786 for the issue of assignats and the minting of gold and silver. In 1817 the Bank of Commerce was founded to develop the discount system, and in the same year a special council was appointed to supervise banking establishments. In 1860 the Bank of Russia was founded with the power of conducting deposit, loan, and discount operations, but not of issuing notes. The first considerable extension of banking facilities, however, came during the two decades following the emancipation of the serfs in 1861, and largely in response to the financial needs created by that enormous economic change. Greater latitude was now allowed to private initiative. In 1864 was opened the first Joint Stock Commercial Bank, and by 1874 there were twenty-eight such insti-

tutions. In 1866 the Mutual Land Loan Society, subsidized by the government, was established on the principle of mutual liability to advance loans at the rate of 5 per cent. to the amount of 40 or 50 per cent. of the value of estates. By 1873 eleven other Joint Stock Land banks had been established. Thereafter the number of land, municipal, commercial, and other banking institutions steadily increased.

In 1883 the government established the Peasants' Land Bank and in 1890 the business of the Mutual Land Loan Society was transferred to the Nobles' Land Bank, organized in 1885. In 1904 the number of banks and similar institutions in Russia was estimated at 550, with more than 300 branches. There were forty-two commercial banks, with 250 branches and a capital of 204,232,600 rubles; 116 mutual credit associations, with capital aggregating 140,740,600 rubles; 241 municipal banks, with a capital of 137,566,000 rubles; and numerous minor credit institutions, such as savings banks, loan offices and societies, and village banks. All of these are institutions for short-term loans. Others granting loans for long periods are ten agrarian joint stock banks, twenty-five municipal credit societies, and a number of class and *zemstvo* banks. Of the three government banks in present operation one, the Nobles' Land Bank, exists for the exclusive purpose of making loans to the nobility in order to enable the members of the order to retain possession of their estates. These loans are contracted at from 4 to 5 per cent. up to the amount of 60 per cent. of the value of the estates for periods of 11 to 66½ years. The second institution, the Peasants' Bank, was founded to assist the peasantry in the purchase of land. It gives long-term credit and advances sums up to 90 per cent. of the price fixed by special valuation of the land mortgaged. The terms vary from 13 to 55½ years, with interest at 5¼ per cent. Up to January 1, 1906, the loans of the Nobles' Land Bank had attained the amount of 733,107,995 rubles. The figure at the same time for the Peasants' Land Bank was 6,825,872.

The third of the great government banking institutions is the Bank of Russia, founded in 1860 with a capital of 15,000,000 rubles. Its original function was to serve as a deposit bank, although it was authorized to make loans, discount bills, buy or sell gold or stocks, issue credit notes, and to carry out commissions for the Minister of Finance. By the reforms of 1894 the fundamental purposes of the bank were declared to be those of facilitating the circulation of money, consolidating the system of credit, and aiding by short-term loans the commerce, industry, and agriculture of the nation. Upon the final adoption of the gold standard in 1897 the bank was given exclusive power to issue credit notes, but only for purposes of exchange and against a reserve fund in gold, which is required by law to be equal to half of the value of the notes issued up to 600,000,000 rubles, and above that sum must be equal to the value of the additional notes issued.

The bank to-day occupies an essentially anomalous position. While it conducts the financial business of the Treasury it at the same time discharges the customary functions of a short-term credit bank. It is a state bank, but its operations are carried on with private and state deposits bearing interest. Its fortunes are indeed inextricably bound up with those of the state, for the state is its preponderating creditor.

When in 1862 Finance Minister Reutern broke with all traditions of the bureaucracy and proposed to inaugurate an era of publicity in the national finances his subordinates in office protested and all but refused to be party to such an innovation. But Reutern persisted, and from 1862 to the present day the itemized details of the Russian budget have regularly been given out to the public. Until the changes incident to the establishment of constitutional government in 1906 the framing of the budget rested wholly with the Council of State, the Minister of Finance, and the Controller of the Empire, acting upon estimates of revenue and expenditure drawn up by the ministers in charge of the various departments. By manifestoes of August 6 (19) and October 17 (30), 1905, it was stipulated that budgetary and other fiscal measures should be laid simultaneously before the Council of the Empire (containing now some elected members) and the Duma, so that under the new régime the representatives of the people are supposed to exercise a considerable measure of control over all affairs of the fisc. The outcome of this arrangement remains in doubt no less serious than that which invests the fate of the constitutional system itself. Thus far, at any rate, the financial interests and operations of the empire have not been perceptibly affected one way or the other.

Among Russian regular expenditures there

are several which, important enough in their way, go to swell the enormous totals of recent years, but do not call for special comment. Such are the jurisdiction of the Holy Synod, costing yearly somewhat under 30,000,000 rubles; the Ministry of Justice, costing in 1907 53,400,000 rubles; the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, costing in the same year 6,000,000 rubles; that of Commerce and Industry (established only in 1905), costing 31,600,000; that of Agriculture, costing 45,000,000; that of the Interior, costing 138,400,000, and the Audit Ministry, costing 9,600,000 rubles.

PAYING INTEREST ON THE DEBT

The rapid growth of the empire's indebtedness in recent decades has meant an increasingly heavy drain upon the treasury for the meeting of current charges and obligations. In 1903, on the eve of the Japanese war, the outlay for interest, amortization, payments on redeemed loans, and miscellaneous expenses was 289,700,000 rubles, or approximately 11 per cent. of the nation's aggregate revenues. In 1904 it was 298,700,000; in 1905, 306,900,000; in 1906, 335,114,000; in 1907, 380,724,000, and in the budget for 1909, 396,700,000. A very considerable portion of this enormous outlay,—from 100,000,000 to 125,000,000 rubles,—goes every year into the pockets of the French financiers and investors. It is true that the annual burden imposed by the debt has not advanced in proportion to the increase in capital value, for at every opportunity the government has availed itself of the general fall in interest rates during recent years and repeated conversions of stock have taken place. By 1895 the average rate paid on outstanding loans had been reduced to 5.08 per cent., and in 1898 it stood at the very favorable figure of 3.86. During the past decade, however, it has increased to approximately 4½ per cent. Of the aggregate indebtedness of 8,609,577,528 rubles January 1, 1907, 501,706,356 bore interest at 3 per cent.; 166,246,946, at 3½ per cent.; 83,912,400, at 3 4-5 per cent.; 5,464,926,259, at 4 per cent.; 254,779,052, at 4½ per cent.; 1,796,049,763, at 5 per cent., and 38,461,847, at 6 per cent.

Practically no progress is being made today toward the liquidation of the debt. There is no real prospect of a reduction of expenditures or a curtailment of foreign loans. The rates of interest which Russia can obtain are likely to rise rather than fall. It does not, therefore, appear that the outlay on account of the debt,—now 15 per cent. of the aggregate revenues,—can possibly be reduced in the years that lie immediately ahead.

NATIONAL DEFENSE AND THE RAILROADS

The two items in the Russian budget which not merely absorb the larger part of the ordinary receipts but compel the periodical flotation of new loans are the national defense and the state railways. One of the principal contributing causes of Russia's dubious financial status to-day has unquestionably been her effort to support, on resources that have been all too slender, naval and military establishments that would command the respect of the European world and of the predominating powers in the Far East.

Ordinary expenditure upon the army (exclusive of the costs of actual war) stood, in 1855, at only 91,000,000 rubles. In 1876 it was 219,000,000 rubles; in 1886, 257,000,000; in 1896, 354,000,000; in 1900, 422,000,000; in 1905, 484,000,000. During the decade ending with 1905 the ordinary military expenditure of Russia increased more rapidly than that of any of the principal European powers, except Great Britain. The percentage of increase was 35.3. That for Great Britain was 61.3; that for Germany, 25.3; that for Austria-Hungary, 20.2, and that for France, 7.3. In 1906 the per capita charge for ordinary military expenditure in Russia was 3.04 rubles; in Great Britain, 6.92; in Germany, 6.18; in France, 7.04; in Austria-Hungary, 3.68, and in Italy, 3.44. The expenditure upon the navy in 1906 and 1907 was somewhat over 100,000,000 rubles per year, and the costs of the rehabilitation of the marine, made necessary by the disasters of the Japanese war, promise long to weigh heavily in the budgets of the empire. The budget for 1909 called for an outlay upon army and navy of 536,400,000 rubles, or 21.7 per cent. of the total expenditure for the year. When it is considered that not even the ordinary costs of the army and navy are met by the regular revenues,—that money is borrowed every year simply for the maintenance of stores and material in the commissariat, the artillery, the engineers, and the paying of the railroads for military transport in a time of profound peace,—the gravity of Russia's failure in the late war takes on a still darker hue.

Closely rivaling, and not seldom exceeding, the annual outlay for the national de-

fense is that for the construction and maintenance of railroads. Railroad-building in Russia began in 1836 with the construction of a short line connecting St. Petersburg with Tsarkoe Selo, the summer residence of the Czar. The first road of importance was that from St. Petersburg to Moscow, begun in 1843 and opened for traffic in 1851. This road was built by the state at the enormous cost of nearly 100,000 rubles per kilometer (as was also a line in Poland connecting Warsaw with the Austrian frontier), but with the new era of construction that set in after the Crimean War the work passed almost entirely into the hands of private companies, although the government often extended loans to these companies and regularly stipulated that after a certain interval, usually twenty years, the crown should have the right to purchase the roads at a fair price. January 1, 1889, the railway system of the empire comprised 27,458 versts,* of which 76½ per cent. was owned by private companies and only 23½ per cent. by the government. In this year the government undertook definitely the unification of the various lines, first by prescribing a common tariff, and secondly, by buying up the separate roads and concentrating their management in the hands of the government and of a few large railway companies.

In the capacity of Finance Minister after 1892 M. Witte pushed the policy of state ownership, with the result that in his report on the budget for 1900 he was able to show that at this date the state owned 60½ per cent. of the 55,286 versts within the empire. Witte's ministry was distinctly an era of railway construction, and he left office in 1906 urging that the work be continued. Since 1902 the government has continued its activity both in the purchase of old roads and the building of new ones. The aggregate system open for traffic on January 1, 1907, comprised 40,748 miles,—32,743 in European Russia and 8005 in Asiatic Russia. Of the total, the government owned and operated 26,816 miles, or 65½ per cent.

SOME RESULTS OF STATE OWNERSHIP OF RAILROADS

The outlay of the state upon railways since 1889 has been very large. Figures on the subject given out from various sources fail totally to agree, but as summarized in the annual budgets the expenses entailed by lines owned and subsidized by the state rose from 107,235,964 rubles in 1889 to 399,694,006 in 1900, while, according to another excellent authority, the state's outlay upon lines exclusively its own increased between the same years from 36,900,000 rubles to 283,600,000. In the budget of 1906 the Ministry of Ways of Communications was set down for an expenditure of 474,885,120 rubles, of which 377,955,625 rubles were to cover the working expenses of the state railways and 71,535,266 to provide for the improvement of lines and the purchase of rolling stock. The expenditure of the Ministry in 1907 rose to 502,800,000 rubles and the operating expenses of the state-owned roads to 382,500,000.

Since the government embarked seriously upon the railway business there have been some years, especially in the nineties, in which the receipts from the roads fully covered all expenses. But most of the time there has been a deficit, and since 1900 the indebtedness of the empire on account of capital sunk in railways has been steadily increasing. It is estimated that down to 1908 the government has spent upon railways the aggregate sum of 4,000,000,000 rubles, of which something like a quarter has been drawn from the ordinary revenues and the remaining 3,000,000,000 rubles has been obtained by loans costing at present, for interest and amortization, not less than 129,000,000 rubles per year.

There can be no doubt that through its policy of railroad exploitation the Russian Government has stimulated commerce (especially the export of agricultural produce), and great industries, such as those of iron and steel, thereby contributing to the general economic betterment and, indirectly, to the increase of the state's revenues. And, of course, the railway system has been developed at every stage with reference to military advantage and the necessities of strategy, so that a great project like the Amur Railway becomes essentially a military enterprise. But at any rate, state railways in Russia are not a source of profit to the Treasury. Quite as often as the needs of the army and navy, they drive the government to the negotiation of loans and in the fiscal problems of the future they promise to play an increasingly embarrassing part.

WHAT ARE RUSSIA'S SOURCES OF REVENUE?

What are the revenues at the government's disposal with which to meet the enormous

* A verst is approximately two-thirds of an English mile.

and varied costs of civil service, army, navy, railways, pensions, debts, and famine relief? The budget classifies them under nine heads, as follows: (1) Direct taxes; (2) indirect taxes; (3) stamp and other duties; (4) state monopolies; (5) state domains; (6) sales of domains; (7) redemption of land; (8) reimbursement of Treasury expenses; and (9) miscellaneous. The direct taxes of the empire fall into three groups. The first comprises imposts upon land, real estate, and individuals. The land tax was imposed in 1875, but owing to the poverty of the peasants it must be kept very low, and its yield is insignificant. The tax upon real property in the towns is similarly unimportant. Poll taxes, which were once an invaluable reliance of the Treasury, were abolished by a series of measures promulgated between 1882 and 1885 for the relief of the impoverished peasantry. There is no general income tax. A tax of 5 per cent. is, however, levied on incomes from interest-bearing papers and bank deposits, and this comprises the second class of direct taxation. The third, and most productive, are the taxes upon industrial certificates or licenses and upon joint-stock companies. The aggregate yield of the direct taxes in 1906 was 163,182,406 rubles.

Under indirect taxes are included customs duties, yielding in 1906 241,270,464 rubles, and excise duties on spirits, tobacco, sugar, naphtha, and matches, yielding in 1906 252,976,206 rubles. Throughout the larger part of the past hundred years Russia has maintained a protective tariff. Until 1824 the rates were practically prohibitive; from 1824 to 1850 they were high, but not prohibitory; from 1850 to 1877 they were distinctly moderate; but after 1877, and particularly with the tariff of 1891, they became once more very high. The ministries of both Vishnigradski (1887-1893) and Witte (1893-1906) were completely dominated by the ideals of protectionism. In the past two decades there has been a considerable increase in the yield of the customs duties, but the effect of the protectionist régime upon domestic industry has been of at least doubtful value.

The third general division of revenues includes duties on stamps, transfers of property, "express" railway traffic, fire insurance, and miscellaneous items. The yield in 1906 was 113,268,466 rubles. The fourth division, that of state monopolies, is the most important of all. Its yield in 1906 was 777,048,028 rubles. Of this amount 46,004,972 rubles accrued from the postal service, 28,246,077 from telegraphs and telephones, 5,257,302 from the mint, 35,843 from mines, and 697,503,834 from the sale of spirits.

GOVERNMENT CONDUCT OF THE LIQUOR BUSINESS

Since as early a date as 1601 the taxation of alcohol, in one form or another, has constituted a bulwark of Russian finance. The manufacture and sale of spirits has passed through many and varied régimes in the empire, but along with the desire to check drunkenness and to promote the health and economic welfare of the peasantry has always gone the idea of increasing the resources of the Treasury. The present system of government monopoly was really initiated by Czar Alexander III., who in 1885 requested the Finance Minister (Bunge) to draw up a plan for an experimental monopoly. The existing excise system had, however, so increased in productiveness that neither Bunge nor his successor, Vishnigradski, cared to tamper with it. It remained for Witte, in pursuance of his monopolistic policy, to introduce the system in operation to-day, which not only brings the government a vastly increased revenue (697,503,834 rubles in 1906, as compared with 287,000,000 in 1894, the last year of the general excise), but transfers a vast mass of political and economic influence from the local authorities to the central administration.

A SUCCESSFUL FISCAL EXPERIMENT

The business of distilling is left entirely to private enterprise. The amount of liquor to be produced is, however, fixed by the government. Two-thirds of it is bought by the government at a price arranged in advance; the remainder is disposed of at auction. The retail traffic is carried on in shops conducted by government agents or by private individuals especially authorized. This system, introduced experimentally in four eastern provinces in 1894, was gradually extended, until in 1902 it was applied even to Siberia. Though there has been endless discussion of its moral and social consequences, there can be no doubt that from the standpoint of the imperial Treasury it has been a glowing success. The expense of administration is considerable; but in 1903 it was only 167,517,598 rubles, as compared with receipts of 529,327,000 rubles, and in recent years it has been proportionally decreasing. At present the spirits monopoly and the state railways

furnish more than half of the total revenue of the nation.

RECEIPTS FROM THE STATE DOMAINS

The fifth division of revenues comprises the income from the state domains, aggregating in 1906 602,610,240 rubles. Here the most important item by far is the receipts from the government-owned railroads,—490,884,687 rubles in 1906,—although, as has been pointed out, this does not represent any net profit to the Treasury. The crown forests (aggregating 950,534,491 acres) yielded in 1906 57,533,920 rubles, and by reason of the growing demand for lumber this resource gives promise of indefinite development. Crown mines and crown banking operations add considerably to this division. Other sources of revenue,—sales of domain lands, payments in redemption of land by former serfs, obligatory repayments from railway companies, and a variety of odds and ends,—go to swell the total, but are singly of slight importance. They may aggregate in a year something like 100,000,000 rubles.

By the utmost pains the ordinary revenue during the past ten years has been kept abreast of the aggregate of ordinary expenditures. It has been raised from 1,416,386,096 rubles in 1897 to 2,031,800,814 in 1903 and 2,271,669,948 in 1906; and the estimate for 1909 is 2,476,900,000. Unfortunately, this does not signify much, for the method seems generally to have been to save appearances by throwing everything that the revenues will not cover into the catch-all category of "extraordinary." If the ordinary and extraordinary budgets are lumped, as in the final analysis they have to be, it turns out that there have been only two years since 1897 in which there has not been a considerable deficit. The budget for the year 1909 contemplated a storage of 159,200,000 rubles, which was to be met by the portion remaining from the recent French loan after the 300,000,000 rubles of 1904 Treasury bonds had been duly converted.

ALWAYS A DEBTOR NATION

Financially Russia occupies a position among the world-powers that is unique. For a century and a half she has never been other than a debtor nation, able but rarely to pay even so much as the interest on her accumulating indebtedness save through the floating of fresh loans. The political and economic disorders by which she has been periodically harassed have threatened again and again to bring down her fiscal system in utter ruin.

CREDIT STILL UNIMPAIRED

Yet in no period of her history has her credit suffered prolonged impairment and not once has she failed to meet her obligations to the full satisfaction of her creditors. As a consequence of so honorable a record, and by reason of the untold resources of the empire in forests, minerals, and agricultural produce, Russian securities command a ready market to-day at good prices in France, Holland, Belgium, Germany, and England. Even the diplomatic defeat which the imperial government suffered in the recent Balkan settlement had no adverse effect upon the market estimate of the empire's credit. Such confidence would unquestionably be misplaced but for one fundamental consideration,—namely, that despite the lingering economic backwardness of the Russian state and people the resources of the nation as a whole,—not alone in the gross output of agriculture, industry, and trade, but in the tax-paying abilities of the people,—are steadily increasing.

A thing that most of us do not realize is that the population of Russia is actually growing at a rate (1½ per cent. a year) not equaled in any important country on the globe. Another thing is that not even in France does so large a proportion of the population belong to the land-owning class, providing a necessary condition for the agricultural prosperity of the coming generations. Since 1877 the amount of arable land held by the nobility has diminished by a third; yet the price of land has risen in every part of the empire. In 1888 the total of savings-bank deposits was 60,000,000 rubles; at the beginning of 1908 it was 1,090,000,000. In fifteen years the consumption of tea, tobacco, brandy, petroleum, and cottons has increased by from 20 to 30 per cent., and the per capita consumption of sugar has been exactly doubled. These are a few casual considerations which tend to relieve the blackness of the picture presented by Russia's financial condition to-day, because they indicate that slowly, painfully, the great Russian people is coming to its own. With increased ability to pay taxes and with ultimate control over the public purse, these same Russian people may yet be able to solve the vexing problem of the balance-sheet with which the bureaucrats have so vainly wrestled.

WATER POWERS OF THE SOUTH

BY HENRY A. PRESSEY

(Consulting engineer)

MOST of the large water powers in the Southeastern States are located near the "fall line," which marks the junction of the Piedmont Plateau with the sandy coastal plain. This fall line extends from Weldon, N. C., on the Roanoke, almost parallel with the coast, to Augusta, Ga., on the Savannah. The river valleys near the fall line are all of similar character, with broad, shallow river beds of solid rock and with open "bottom lands," which include some of the best agricultural tracts of the South. The rocky, irregular hills approach the rivers at intervals, forming natural abutments for the construction of dams, as well as quarries for the making of concrete and rubble masonry.

The dams required are usually long and expensive. The power house is generally located at one end of the dam, or in some cases a short distance down stream, the water being carried from the dam site to the power house by an artificial canal. But the foundations are usually available in the solid rock, over which only a foot or two of water flows during the low period, thus making the construction of coffer-dams economical and safe. The long dam has a very decided advantage, in that during flood periods, which are sure to come, the additional length gives a spillway for the flood waters, thus relieving the danger to the power house and the lands above it. The expense of maintaining such a dam is small, as the repairs required by crib dams or long canals are almost entirely avoided.

RECENT INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH

Fifty years ago practically no water powers of any size were utilized in the South, but the growth of the textile industries in the Southern States, and the advance in the knowledge of transmitting electric power have given a wonderful impetus to their development. This growth has been especially marked during the last five or ten years, the increase during that time being many fold. To-day many of the cotton mills and other factories of the South are operated by electric power from the neighboring rivers, and electric-light companies and railroads have come into life without the construction of steam plants to provide power. Water powers which for generations have remained idle are now being utilized, with splendid returns upon the money required for their development.

The wonderful industrial growth of the Southern States has been partially due to the development of the water powers. South Carolina, which formerly had practically no mills, now stands second only to Massachusetts in the number of its spindles, while North Carolina and Georgia stand, respectively, fourth and fifth in rank as cotton-goods manufacturers. During the last fifteen years, for which figures are available, while Massachusetts increased her output of cotton goods 490 per cent. and Rhode Island 19 per cent., South Carolina has increased 730 per cent., North Carolina 580 per cent., and Georgia 233 per cent. In 1880 there were 667,000 spindles in operation in the South. In 1890 the number was 1,712,000, and in 1905 it had increased to 9,205,000. In 1880 the capital invested in cotton mills in the South was $21,000,000, in 1890 $60,000,000, and in 1905 $225,000,000, while the value of the cotton crop has increased over $350,000,000. During the same period the capital invested in manufacturing has grown from $257,000,000 to $1,500,000,000.

Water powers have been developed on nearly every river of any size from the Potomac to the Gulf, and nearly all of the larger Southern cities now have either electric energy delivered to them from water powers, or have in contemplation plans for the utilization of such power, the cheapness and convenience of which will enable them to compete with their neighbors. Great plants are now in operation on the James, Cape Fear, Yadkin, Catawba, Broad, Savannah, and other streams, and the cities of Charlotte, Augusta, Atlanta, Richmond, Raleigh, Greenville, and many others, are utilizing electric energy developed by water power to a very large and rapidly increasing degree. Already water powers aggregating

FRENCH BROAD, SHOWING SHOALS AND CHARACTERISTIC DAM SITE WITH ROCKY LEDGE CLOSE TO THE WATER SURFACE

more than 500,000 horsepower have been developed and are being utilized.

To-day there are hundreds of miles of copper and aluminum wire stretched upon steel towers and wooden poles, carrying energy a distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the source of power, and making possible the construction of mills and factories at points favorable to transportation and to health, instead of requiring the mill to be built on low ground close to the river, where ill health, and consequent poor work, are bound to follow, thus greatly reducing the output of the cotton mills.

UNDEVELOPED MOUNTAIN STREAMS

While many of the larger water powers in the Southern States are located near the fall line, most of the streams have falls of from 3 to 5 feet per mile across the Piedmont Plateau, with drops at intervals sufficient to be dignified by the name of shoals. Most of the developed powers are located at small falls ranging from 5 to 50 feet, but back in the mountains there are many localities where power could be developed in enormous quantities on streams that are at these points small in flow, but make up in value by their enormous drops. For example, Linville River, one of the greatest wonders and beauty spots in the Eastern States, drops 1800 feet as it flows through its nine-mile gorge, while the Tallulah, Toxaway, Chattooga, and others have falls of from 500 to 2000 feet within a distance that makes their development as water powers feasible.

There can be no question that these powers will be developed, the chief reason for the delay being the lack of market in the immediate vicinity, and the fact that there are other powers now in operation or being developed which can reach the centers of population with shorter transmission lines. Many of these powers may soon be utilized by industries, perhaps of a chemical nature, in which the cost of transportation of supplies is not as important as cheap power. These mountain streams with high heads have many advantages over the low-head constructions on the rivers below, chiefly in the economy of installation, for immense masonry dams are not required, and fine artificial storage facilities are often available. Take the Linville River, for example. On

that river a small dam would store the entire flow from the fifty miles of watershed tributary to the reservoir.

The total fall of all the rivers flowing from the mountains across the Southern States is large, varying from over 6000 feet in those which rise on the upper slopes of the Black Mountains, to perhaps half that amount in the streams which rise in the foothills. Theoretically this means an immense amount of available water power. It is hardly fair, however, from a practical standpoint, to consider the entire fall of a stream, but only the amount that can be developed at a cost which will be justified by the returns. An estimate of the exact amount of power available on the streams flowing from the Appalachians to the Atlantic is not practicable, but from examinations made of the various rivers there can be no doubt that there are at least 2,000,000 horsepower. A very small part of this has been developed, though in the last five years there has been greater development of water powers in the Southern States than in all the previous history of the region.

THE APPEAL TO THE MANUFACTURER

The increase in knowledge during the last decade regarding the methods of creating electric energy at high potentials, and of so insulating the conductors that from 20,000 to 100,000 volts can be generated at the power plant by water and transmitted distances of 100 miles, or even more, has had a marked effect upon the value of water power and upon the general industrial growth of nearly all regions where there are undeveloped powers.

When it is shown to a prospective manufacturer that electric power can be delivered to his factory ready for use at a price of perhaps $20 per horsepower per year, and that in building his plant it will not be necessary to install boilers, engines, heavy shafting, or belting, but that the power can be taken directly from the wires to the generator in his mill, that practically all of the attendance necessary to the maintenance of a steam plant is done away with, and that all difficulties due to delay in the transportation of coal or to coal shortages are avoided, it is likely to have a decided effect in determining the question where his factory shall be located. There are many cities in the South which are being developed in this way. The first use of electric power has been in the old factories, principally cotton mills, but diversified industries are now springing up, creating manufacturing centers similar to those found in the New England States, which owe their location entirely to a fall in a river which could be utilized for power. Lowell, Lawrence, Holyoke, Lewiston, and many other cities in New England would never have existed in their present locations had it not been for the fall in the river at those particular points.

Many large mills recently constructed in the South have installed individual electric motors operated from a large steam plant, the power being transmitted through the mill entirely by electricity. These mills are in a position to take advantage of the development of water powers, for the current, after being transformed to a lower voltage, can be directly connected with the motors in the mill and the mill be operated partially or wholly by water power. If during the low-water period there is scarcity of power, the steam plant can be used as a temporary auxiliary and the remaining current from the water power be utilized in places where steam plants are not available.

In northern climates the users of water powers are in the winter months frequently troubled with ice, usually in the form of anchor-ice, which forms in the canal and blocks the wheels. While in most parts of the Southeastern States where water powers are available there is more or less snow and ice each year, the quantities are small and there is never difficulty from anchor-ice. The milder climate is also of great advantage in the construction and maintenance of the transmission line, for the weight of the ice on the wires is the most severe test of the strength of the copper or aluminum wire itself and of its support.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING STREAM FLOW IN THE SOUTH

The value of a region for water-power development depends first upon the amount of power that can be economically developed, and, second, upon the possibility of utilizing power for industrial purposes. The amount of power that can be developed depends upon the fall and flow of the rivers. The flow of a stream depends upon several physical features, such as rainfall, evaporation, storage by lakes, marshes, or the soil, vegetation, including forests, geology of the rocks and soil, particularly their perviousness to water, contour of slope, and length of drainage lines, which to a large extent determine the

WATER-POWER DEVELOPMENT AND COTTON MILLS ON THE CHATTAHOOCHEE RIVER AT COLUMBUS, MUSCOGEE COUNTY, GEORGIA

time required for the water to reach the rivers after it is precipitated from the atmosphere.

The annual rainfall of the United States varies from nothing in certain arid regions of the West to over 100 inches per annum on the extreme northwestern coast, in a small section of Florida, a small strip on the coast of the Carolinas, and in the great Appalachian mountain region of the Southeastern States. Along the northeastern coast it varies from 30 to 50 inches, which increases as the mountains are approached, until in the high mountain ranges of western North Carolina and eastern Tennessee the rainfall reaches 70 inches in most years, while at intervals or in certain regions the extremely high figure of 100 to 105 inches is attained. This very high precipitation means much to the development of water powers on the streams rising in the Southern Appalachians, where from 50 to 100 per cent. more water falls during the year than in some water-power regions of the country. Quite as important as the quantity is the very even distribution of this precipitation throughout the year, thus giving a reasonably even natural flow to the rivers fed from these mountain slopes.

Were it not for the high and comparatively uniform precipitation, the water powers of the South would be of little value, especially during the low-water periods of the year, for in all the Southeastern States there is not a single lake or pond of any considerable size that serves as a reservoir for the storage of flood flows and as an equalizer of the river discharge. In some States, for instance New York, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Maine, great natural lake basins have been carved in the rocks, and the outlets to these basins have gradually filled, thus forming large fresh-water lakes, which serve as regulators for the streams. The Southern rivers flowing into the Atlantic and the eastern part of the Gulf, however, are deprived of these natural regulating basins, and depend entirely upon the distribution of rainfall and the natural storage of water in the soil. Even marshes of any size are practically unknown along these Southern streams.

On the other hand, the soil of the Southern Atlantic States is generally porous, consisting, on the coastal plain, of great areas of sandy soil, and further back of great tracts of clay intermingled with sand and gravel and thus pervious to water. On the steep slopes, and usually to the very summits of the highest mountains of the Southern Appalachians, the soil has been formed by the disintegration of rock in place. It reaches great depths, even on the mountains, and absorbs the rain water like a sponge, gradually giving it out in the form of springs and mountain streams, which perpetually flow from the mountain side in even the driest seasons, producing a comparatively uniform flow in the rivers. Not all of the Southern streams, however, are fed by mountain springs, for several of the large rivers rise on the Piedmont Plateau, which

is below the mountain regions, and these lack both the high precipitation and the natural regulation of the soil, which are features of the mountain region.

A comparison of the flow of the rivers along the Atlantic Coast is interesting and shows the effect of the distribution of rainfall and of the geology and topography of the river basins. For example, the rivers of Maine, with its great lake area, have discharges comparatively uniform, this uniformity being usually increased by artificial dams at the lake outlets, until the very highest efficiency in regulation is reached, as, for example, in the Cobasseecontee, which has a variation in flow throughout the year of less than 5 per cent. Many other New England streams, regulated also by lakes, have comparatively uniform flows, as do most of the rivers of New York State. Passing south, however, in the Potomac, we have a river with no storage basins, with steep, narrow, and rocky valleys from which the rainfall quickly reaches the river channel, producing extreme fluctuations of flow, varying, on the Potomac above Washington, from a minimum flow of 1000 cubic feet per second to a maximum of 250,000 cubic feet per second, on a drainage basin of about 11,000 square miles. The next rivers to the south, the James, Roanoke, and Cape Fear, rise to the east of the mountain ranges and have extremes of high and low water which greatly increase the difficulty and expense of developing water powers and reduce the efficiency of the streams during the low-water period. Passing southward, the Catawba, Yadkin, Broad, and Savannah all rise either on the higher mountain slopes or in the foothills of the mountains. They have high and uniform precipitation at their sources, porous soils in most parts of their drainage basins, and flows which may be called uniform, thus making them streams of exceptional value for the development of water power. Still farther south, the Coosa and the Black Warrior rise below the mountain region, and the latter is subject to variations in the elevation of its water surface of over 50 feet, making water power development almost impracticable.

Conditions entirely different are found in the Western streams, which vary from the practically useless, from a water-power standpoint, so-called lost rivers of the great American desert, to the uniform-flowing rivers rising in the Rocky Mountains, fed in the wet season by almost constant precipitation and in the dry season by the melting of the glaciers on the mountain slopes, thus giving a flow that is almost ideal.

The fall due to geologic conditions also varies in different parts of the country. The fall of streams in New York and New England is largely in vertical drops over shelves in the archean rock, or, as in the case of the Niagara, is produced by the breaking away of a hard rocky stratum due to the undermining of some softer formation which underlies it. In the Southeastern States, except for the comparatively small streams in the mountains, vertical falls in the rivers are extremely rare, nearly all of the so-called "falls" being a series of shoals or rapids, in some cases extending for miles down the river and requiring the construction of a high masonry dam at the foot of the shoals, which will often back the water up for ten to twenty miles. While the development of power on these streams requires extensive purchases of riparian rights, it has the advantage of the creation of a reservoir, frequently of large capacity, but at least sufficient to store the water flowing during the night for use through the wheels on the following day.

THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN FORESTS

Because of the lack in the South of natural storage in lakes and marshes, anything that tends to equalize the flow of the rivers, thereby increasing the amount of power that can be developed continuously throughout the year, is of the utmost economic value. The Southern Appalachian Mountains differ from the Rockies of the West and from the mountains of New England, both in their general topography and in their geologic features. In traveling through the Southern Appalachians one is surprised at the lack of cliffs and rocky ledges, and notes instead a smooth topography covered with a heavy forest growth. These forests are today the most extensive hardwood timber tracts in the country. They contain a great variety of trees, the forest growth varying with the elevation. Most of the mountains are forested to their summits, where the hardy conifers thrive. The deep, fine-grained soil and the abundance of moisture make this an ideal region for forest growth. As a matter of fact, about 60 per cent. of this mountain region must be for all time devoted to forest growth, or it will become a sterile wilderness. Without the tree roots and the humus, which protects the soil, the fine particles of clay are unable to withstand the

friction of the water flowing down the steep mountain sides. Whenever these slopes are bared of vegetation, gulleys and washouts are quickly formed, and the top soil is carried down to the river valleys and deposited, frequently in the river beds, thus restricting the channel, causing floods over neighboring land, and leaving on the mountain side only a sterile clay soil.

THE DISAPPEARANCE OF TIMBER

Nearly the whole of these mountains, even the steep slopes, were once covered with a magnificent growth of timber, which, owing to its inaccessibility, was long spared the inroads of the lumbermen. Now, however, since the forests of the North and West have been denuded, lumbermen have turned their attention to the Southern Appalachians, and the vast forests are rapidly disappearing. Railroads have penetrated the mountains, and mills, large and small, have been located in the forested areas. One great railroad traverses the heart of the region, lines have been constructed up the Doe and Nolichuky rivers, and a number of other lines have been surveyed, some of which will probably be built within a few years. Wherever a railroad is constructed the neighboring timber soon disappears, because of the cheaper transportation. Most of the large mills are steam saw mills, and they are moved deeper into the forests as the supply of timber in their immediate vicinity is exhausted, the railroads being extended to them. Near the rivers the logs are splashed down the streams to the timber pens of the mills below, thus saving the cost of railroad transportation or a long haul over rocks and steep roads.

Great as has been the havoc wrought by the lumberman, his part in the forest destruction has been small when compared with that of clearing the land for agricultural purposes and the loss from forest fires. Instead of trying to improve the soil in the valleys of adjacent slopes, the local farmer has for years followed the policy of clearing new patches on the mountain sides and abandoning the old patches as rapidly as the soil is worn out. The productiveness of these hillside fields is short lived, each one being abandoned in from three to five years. After the trees have been girdled and the underbrush has been destroyed, the field is planted in corn for one or two years, then in grain for a year, then in grass for one or two years. After that it is used as pasture land for a year or two, until, with increased barrenness, the grass gives way to weeds and the weeds to gullies.

THE TALLULAH FALLS—UNDEVELOPED
(Showing high head and excellent dam site)

Forest fires preceded the lumberman, have accompanied him, and have followed in his wake. They have been rendered far more destructive by the lumbermen leaving the brush scattered among the remaining growth in such a way that in the burning it has fed the fires. In some regions fires have entirely destroyed the forests, and the burning of the protecting humus has opened the way for the destruction of the soil itself from the wash of water.

EFFECT OF DEFORESTATION ON STREAM FLOW

That the destruction of the forests and the burning of the humus seriously affects the flow of the streams in this region there can be no doubt. There has been much argument among scientists and engineers as to the effect of forests upon rainfall and stream flow. Many have argued that forests are everywhere necessary for the proper regulation of stream flow, while others have denied the importance of the forest cover and have challenged the forester to show cases where the beneficial action of a forest is definitely proved.

Whatever may be the facts in a general

way concerning the effect of timber cover upon the run-off of streams, it is beyond question a fact that in the Southern Appalachian Mountains the forests are absolutely necessary not only for the regulation of the flow of the streams but for the protection of the fertile valley lands bordering the streams, as well as for the preservation of the mountains themselves. After the destruction of the forests, wherever a growth of underbrush or even grass is possible, the effect of the forest cutting may not be so serious, as the grass and roots of bushes protect the ground much as the forest itself does; but on these slopes, when the top soil is removed, there is little chance for any vegetation to take root, and gullies 50 feet or more in depth are not uncommon. The destruction by floods in the valleys is, of course, greatest during a wet season. In the year 1901, the estimated damage by floods in the valleys of the rivers flowing from these mountains was $10,000,000. Houses, bridges, railways, and highways were carried away, and in places where the writer had seen fertile soil and growing crops a few months previous to the flood, there were depositions of from 10 to 12 feet of sand and clay, changing the land from a productive farm to a waste that would require years before ready for cultivation. During floods the finer silt is carried down the stream and deposited wherever the velocity of the current is checked, but especially in the reservoirs constructed for water power use, in which the water is quiet, thus affording conditions favorable to the deposition of silt.

AN ERODED SLOPE, WESTERN NORTH CAROLINA

THE PROJECTED FOREST RESERVE

The importance of the Southern Appalachians as a collector and conservator of water and their effect upon the water powers of the southern streams are hard to fully realize. Perhaps this is one reason why there has been so much delay on the part of the national Congress in passing the bill which has been submitted to it each year for the last ten years, authorizing the setting aside of these mountains as a national forest reserve and appropriating sufficient funds for the purchase of the necessary land. Sooner or later this bill will be passed, for the people throughout the country are beginning to realize the importance of the great conservation movements that are sweeping over the country, and there is not one concerning which it is more important to take immediate action than the setting aside of this forest reserve.

WATER-POWER CONTROL

It was proposed by President Roosevelt that all undeveloped water powers should be the property of the people, those developing the power doing so under a grant from the National Government permitting the utilization of the power for a stipulated period by the annual payment into the national treasury of a nominal sum, the rights to revert to the Government at the end of the license period. The constitutionality of such a measure is not certain. Able lawyers differ widely in their views on this question.

Up to the present time the United States has done very little in the way of legislation regarding the development of unused water powers. It has always been conceded that the Government has the right to control all navigable streams, and therefore all dams to be constructed on streams, actually or theoretically navigable, must, according to law, be approved by the

Chief of Engineers of the Army and the Secretary of War. If a stream flows through two or more States, and is known as an interstate stream, permission to construct a dam must be obtained by an act of Congress, while if the river is within a single State the right can be conferred by the legislature of that State.

THE INCREASING COST OF COAL

All steam power in the Southeastern States is generated by the consumption of coal. Coal varies from $3 to $4 per ton, delivered at the plant. The price of coal without question will increase in the future for the consumption is yearly becoming greater, the supply is decreasing, and the cost per ton of mining has constantly grown larger, as shown by the following table furnished by the Mineral Resources Division of the United States Geological Survey:

AVERAGE PRICE OF COAL AT THE MINE PER 2000 POUNDS.

Year.	Anthracite.	Bituminous.
1898	$1.41	$0.80
1899	1.46	0.87
1900	1.49	1.04
1901	1.67	1.04
1902	1.84	1.12
1903	2.04	1.24

While there may be an occasional temporary reduction in price, due to unusual causes, the general tendency of the price of coal will undoubtedly be upward, and therefore the cost of power generated by steam will increase correspondingly. Even to-day in most cases water power can be produced at from $10 to $15 per horsepower per year less than steam power in small units.

But, setting aside this aspect of the case and looking at the matter from the standpoint of the conservation of natural resources, the argument is very strong in favor of the utilization of water powers instead of consuming coal for the production of power. The water power has been a wasted resource since the settlement of the country. Its utilization now would in no way reduce the assets or natural resources of the nation, but every ton of coal that is burned reduces one of the most valuable assets this nation possesses. To the water powers, therefore, we should look in our battle for industrial supremacy with the other nations of the earth.

NEW POWER PLANTS ON SOUTHERN RIVERS

The power plants of recent construction in the South are of much larger capacity than those formerly built for the use of individual milling corporations. The first plants (for example, that at Columbus, Ga., on the Savannah River) were, like the early power plants at Lowell and Lawrence, planned to supply water to individual users, leaving the mills to install their own water wheels and generate their own power. All of the more recent plants, however, generate electric energy and transmit it to the users over copper or aluminum wires. Several developments are now under construction involving the expenditure of many million dollars. The Southern Power Company, the largest combination of its kind in the South, owns property and has plants which will develop more than 130,000 horsepower, the plants ranging in size from 3000 to 30,000 horsepower each, located principally on the Catawba River, but also on the Yadkin, Broad, and other streams. Their largest development, at the great falls of the Catawba, will utilize a fall of 176 feet in a distance of 6 miles, but for economic and engineering reasons this must be divided into three developments of 60, 72, and 40 feet, respectively, which will utilize about 2000 cubic feet of water per second.

The North Georgia Electric Company, although it has experienced many financial difficulties, controls eleven power sites, principally on the Chattahoochee and Etawah rivers. Only one of these, however, is developed. Plants are being constructed at Rockingham, on the Yadkin, to develop 30,000 horsepower; near Macon, on the Ocmulgee, to develop 20,000 horsepower; on the Tennessee, near Chattanooga, to develop 40,000 horsepower; on the Broad, near Gaffney, to develop 10,000 horsepower; on the Cape Fear (completed), to develop 8000 horsepower, and at other places.

Although manufacturing in Greensboro, Spartanburg, Charlotte, Raleigh, Greenville, Atlanta, and many other of the larger cities and smaller towns is conducted by power transmitted electrically for distances of only 20 miles or a little more, practically the only limit to the distance of transmission is the cost of the transmission line and the comparative cost of producing power by steam, for in other parts of the country transmission lines as long as 220 miles have been operated, and longer lines are well within engineering possibilities.

THE TENDENCY TOWARD CONSOLIDATION

At present the development of water power in the Southern States in many sections is rapidly meeting the requirements for power for manufacturing establishments, and yet

there are immense amounts of power that will be developed from time to time as the market demands. From an economic standpoint an important feature in the development of the South will be the competition between the various water-power companies in the same community in cases where there is more power available than is required. This is a condition that may not be seriously felt for many years, but when it is felt it is likely that there will be consolidation among the various water-power plants, and that the transmission lines will be connected so that the whole South will be covered with wires like a spider's web, arranged so that if one plant is shut down there will be no interruption of power, but the current will be supplied from other plants connected with the same wires.

Practically all mills and factories will be operated by energy from this network of wires, at a price lower than power could be produced by the burning of coal, and in a more convenient and profitable way. Such consolidations will be to the advantage of the States concerned. But in order that there shall be no abuse of the wonderful powers which would be centered in such a community of interest, the owners of the powers should be compelled to act under most careful legal regulations made and enforced by the general government or by the various States. The power for good or for bad of such a combination would be greater than that of any like combination that has ever existed, but, properly guided, and with the rights of the individual properly protected, the water powers of the Southern States combined in this great community of interests would be one of their greatest assets. When this time comes there is no reason why the Southland should not be one of the great manufacturing centers of the world. It is important, in making ready for such a condition, that fair and equitable regulating laws be enacted early in the development, and that laborers for the operation of mills and factories be trained, for, after all, to-day the great drawback to the more rapid development of the manufacturing industries of the Southern States is the lack of competent white labor.

THE GREAT FALLS OF THE POTOMAC

(A seventy-four-foot undeveloped fall, within sixteen miles of Washington)

FALLS OF THE GENESEE — A STRIKING INSTANCE OF NEW YORK'S UNDEVELOPED POWER RESOURCES

(The State might develop here 30,000 horsepower without injury to the scenic beauties of the falls)

NEW YORK'S CONSERVATION OF WATER RESOURCES

THE advocates of the now nation-wide movement for the conservation of our natural resources are awaiting with keen interest the further action of the legislature of New York on the question of development, control, and regulation of the water supply of the Empire State for the public benefit.

During the administration of Governor Hughes New York has gained a prominent position among the States of the Union in legislative enactments for the regulation of public utilities. The success of the experiment in State regulation has attracted general attention and is to-day influential in shaping legislation in other States along similar lines.

In the conservation movement New York is also the pacemaker, having inaugurated her own policy of conservation previous to the meeting of the Governors called at the White House by former President Roosevelt. In his address at that memorable conference Governor Hughes said:

> The Empire State has been bountifully blessed by nature and for a long period there has been a steady growth in the appreciation of her priceless treasures and of the importance of preserving them. Our vast stretches of forests feeding our streams and nourishing the agricultural and industrial activities of our citizens, long remained the subject of selfish devastation and reckless disregard of the just demands of future generations, and without thought of the essential condition of our continued prosperity.

In his first message, on January 2, 1907, Governor Hughes recommended an increase in the powers of the State Water Supply Commission, which was created in 1905, primarily to insure an equitable division among the municipalities of the State of the sources of water supply and the lands necessary for the proposed extension of municipal

BIG TUPPER LAKE

(Showing shore line about as it will be left by the commission after the construction of State reservoirs)

water-works. He called attention to the necessity of providing comprehensive plans for water storage and just regulation for the public benefit. The legislature responded by directing the commission to "devise plans for the progressive development of the water powers of the State under State ownership, control, and maintenance for the public use and benefit, and for *the increase of the public revenue.*"

By this legislation, the State of New York originated an unique experiment in the annals of American commonwealths.

REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE WORK

There is no issue of more vital importance before the American people to-day than that of conserving our natural resources, and no phase of this question more directly concerns the present and future economic and industrial development of New York than the proper conservation of the water resources of that State.

One of the most valuable assets of the State is the water flowing in her streams. Their complete regulation and utilization will be fundamentally beneficial, not alone to the State, but to the whole country as well, for it provides for an enlargement of the industrial and commercial activities and increase of individual opportunity for employment, and a corresponding increase in human happiness. Someone has said, "Without coal our domestic and industrial life are inconceivable and our existence in great cities and crowded communities is impossible, unless a substitute is devised."

The future welfare of the nation requires that all practicable means be employed for the conservation of the supply of coal. Power derived from water is utilizing energy otherwise wasted. It is an increment to our assets which entails no loss of other resources.

After all is said, the water-power resources of New York are limited, when consideration is given to the astonishingly rapid rate of increase in population. To insure the preservation of the water powers and to secure the maximum practical utilization are subjects for serious thought on the part of the people and the lawmakers of the State.

Succinctly stated, the wise conservation of the water supply means:

1. Water power developed in every region where people live, such development increasing largely the output of plants now in operation, creating opportunities for the establishment of many others, giving employment to thousands of skilled and unskilled laborers.

2. Indefinite postponement of the coalless age.

3. Protection from destructive floods, entailing loss of life, millions of dollars in property, and the ruin of thousands of acres of productive agricultural land.

4. The reclamation of rich alluvial bottoms which will provide homes for thousands

AN UNDEVELOPED WATER POWER ON THE RAQUETTE

A VIEW NEAR AVON, SHOWING EFFECT OF THE 1909 FLOOD ON THE GENESEE RIVER

of families and add millions to the taxable property of the State.

5. The restoration of healthful conditions in the valleys.

6. The transformation of unsightly swamps into beautiful lakes in the scenic playground of the people.

7. By increasing the low water flow of the polluted streams a dilution will result which will improve sanitary conditions.

8. Navigation will be benefited on the streams and transportation facilities will be extended on the reservoirs.

9. The water supply of growing communities will be increased and improved.

THE ESTHETIC SIDE OF CONSERVATION

In the formulation of its plans for constructing large reservoirs in the Adirondack parks and other scenic regions of the State, the commission has been mindful of the attitude of the people towards any proposed change in the natural appearance. Due consideration, therefore, has been given to the preservation of all the natural beauty and charm and the plans proposed will change ugliness into beauty, and solitary swamps into sanitary places.

The great storage reservoirs will become attractive lakes, whose margins will be cleared of all growth, leaving clean sandy beaches or bold rocky slopes instead of a tangled mass of decaying vegetable matter, such as is found on other reservoir systems constructed without consideration of either health or appearance. These reservoirs, so far from impairing the healthfulness or

STATE LAND, NEITHER BEAUTIFUL NOR VALUABLE, TO BE FLOODED BY THE RESERVOIRS

THE PIERCEFIELD DAM, RAQUETTE RIVER

(The mill shut down on account of lack of water. Had the floods been stored the water would have operated the mill throughout the dry season)

the scenery of the region, will enhance the beauty of the forests and increase the attractiveness of the lakes as summer resorts.

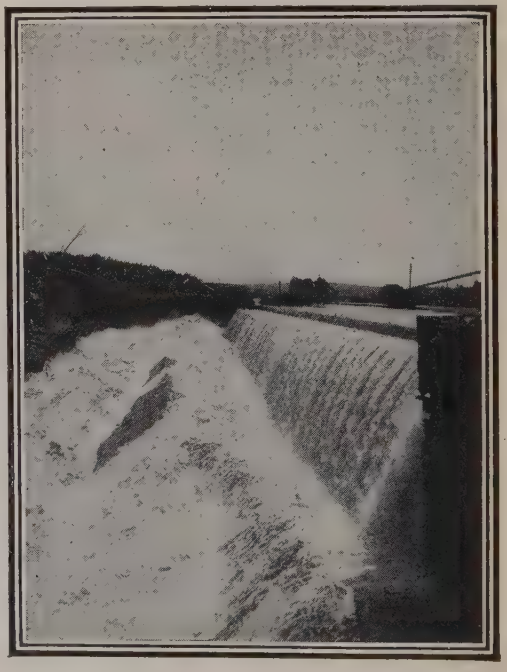
WORK OF THE COMMISSION

The scope of the investigation which the commission was directed to undertake was broad, the interests involved extensive, valuable, and complex, and the information to be obtained great in amount and technical in nature. At the outset the commission recognized the impossibility of devising plans in the limited period of eighteen months for the complete development of the water resources of the State which properly might be considered under the provisions of the law.

The first year's work was, therefore, confined largely to a critical survey of a few of the most promising sites for power development, and a report was submitted to the Governor and the Legislature in February, 1908. This important engineering work was instrusted to Mr. John R. Freeman, one of the most eminent hydraulic engineers of the country. Under his direction, in 1908, studies were made of reservoir sites of two important streams; the Sacandaga, a tributary of the Hudson, at Conklingville, and the Genesee River at Portageville.

After due consideration of the preliminary report, the legislature made provisions for the continuance of the investigation. The commission at once increased its force of engineers and began investigations of the water powers of all of the larger rivers of the State, developed and undeveloped. Carefully prepared plans were made for the development of storage on the headwaters of the Raquette, Genesee, and the upper Hudson, and a reconnaissance made on the Black, Oswegatchie, St. Regis, Salmon, Delaware, Susquehanna, and other smaller streams. The plans and estimates for storage on the Hudson, Genesee, and Raquette have been carried to the point where definite recommendations can be submitted to the legislature and construction commenced.

One of the duties imposed upon the commission by the legislature is the recom-



THE PIERCEFIELD DAM IN FLOOD

(Showing waste water in the spring, which will be stored by the State reservoirs)

mendation of specific projects, the construction of which was to be undertaken first, with estimates of cost and plans for construction.

In considering the selection of the first projects for development, there are several general considerations which will necessarily be taken into account:

1. A project will be selected which is desired by the owners of the property on the river and for which they have made a request and have expressed a willingness to bear the financial requirements, in accordance with the terms of the new bill to be introduced at the next session of the legislature.

2. There should be companies, individuals, or municipalities benefited by the project of sufficient financial importance to carry the financial load.

3. As large a population as possible should be benefited by the project.

4. The fact that many new water powers would be made available and valuable would be important.

5. The creation or improvement of inland navigation either by the lake area or by increased depth of the river.

6. The flooding of marshes, lowlands and stagnant water.

7. The general effect upon the scenic conditions and upon villages, camps, and country homes.

8. The effect upon highways and railroads must be taken into account.

9. The absolute avoidance of the creation of new marshes and large areas of marsh lands alternately flooded and dried.

10. Considerations of State land unlawful to flood under the present Constitution.

11. Local conditions making delay in a certain proposition desirable.

12. Cost of project in relation to benefits derived.

13. Possibility of establishment of new industries and new communities on account of increased power developed at the State dam, or at other sites along the river.

14. Increased healthfulness owing to greater minimum flow or decrease of swamp area.

At the same time that the recommendations of the commission are presented to the legislature, a new bill will be introduced providing for the issuing of bonds to an amount not exceeding twenty million dollars, the proceeds of these bonds to be utilized in the purchase of land for reservoir sites and the construction of reservoirs, and also authorizing the commission, with the approval of the Governor, to proceed with the construction of the reservoirs. According to the Constitution of the State of New York, this bill cannot become a law until approved by a general vote of the people of the State, in view of the fact that it appropriates an amount greater than one million dollars. It is not the purpose of this bill that the State shall permanently bear the expenses of the construction of these reservoirs, but rather that the State shall advance the money for construction, and this money shall be returned gradually in the form of assessments upon those benefited by the storage. The State will issue bonds (perhaps to run forty years) to the amount required for the construction of the first projects. Benefits will be assessed upon the various water-power owners on the river below the reservoir for the advantages received by them from the regulated flow. Individual landholders and corporations, including municipalities, will be assessed in proportion to their benefits from this storage due to the prevention of floods, sanitation, or otherwise.

The State is to own perpetually in fee the reservoirs, and is to control the regulation. The assessments for benefits will be of such amounts that the interest on the State bonds with proper sinking fund will be taken care of, so that at the end of the bond period the State will own the regulating basins, and will have the cost of the construction of same with interest returned to the State Treasury.

The primary object of the construction of the State reservoirs is the regulation of the flow of the river throughout its course, thereby increasing the values of water powers and reducing the destruction by floods, benefiting navigation, improving sanitary conditions, etc. Incidentally, at most of the State dams there will be the possibility of creating water powers of immense size, as on the Sacandaga, where 75,000 horse power can be developed. It is planned that this power in the form of water discharged from the reservoir shall be leased to the highest bidder, especial preference being given to the bidder who will use such power for the creation of new enterprises and the employment of men. It has been suggested that the State might install at such a dam-site a power-house with water-wheels and generators and transmit the power electrically to some city where there is

a ready market, the State thereby entering into competition with other electric plants, and by selling power at a reasonable price, in a general way regulate the price for power in that immediate vicinity. It is not the purpose of the State, however, to enter into the field of producing electric power, but rather to lease the water to individuals who may install their own generating plants and utilize power for general manufacturing purposes. This has been done for many years by the general Government at dams built for the benefit of navigation and more recently has been taken up in precisely the same way by the United States Reclamation Service, at sites where large amounts of water would otherwise have been wasted at dams constructed primarily for irrigation.

WHY THE STATE SHOULD DO THIS WORK

The reasons for the State undertaking this important work, rather than an individual or association, will be clear when it is appreciated how widespread and important the results will be to an immense number of individuals and corporations whose interests are varied and occasionally somewhat antagonistic. By means of a comprehensive policy, taking into consideration present and future development of all parts of every stream, the State can control hydraulic development as conditions demand and eventually realize the most complete and economic utilization possible. Development by private enterprise would involve limitations and wasteful methods. Individuals or corporations cannot exercise the necessary power of condemnation required for the creation of water storage. Co-operation between a number of mill owners for the purpose of river control has been shown to be peculiarly difficult to arrange, the benefits hard to apportion to the satisfaction of all, and with such control there is always danger of only partial development in such a way as to preclude the possibility of complete utilization of either the storage or power.

The State, however, having the financial ability to make great expenditures and to wait many years, if necessary, for the return on its outlay, could lay out comprehensive plans for the complete utilization of the river resources, building, if desirable, these works in sections as required, but all in accordance with the plan that will eventually utilize every resource of the river. The State would also see to it that all dams and reservoirs should be well constructed, thereby preventing the possibility of the breaking of the dam and the consequent loss of life, and destruction of property in the valley below.

Then, too, many of the reservoirs for the regulation of New York streams will be constructed in the Adirondack Mountains, in which every citizen of the State, in fact, every American, has the deepest concern that there shall be no destruction of beauty or healthfulness in this region and that it may be always retained as a play-ground and health-seeking region for all.

FLOODING NEED NOT BE INJURIOUS

The method of creating storage reservoirs used almost universally by private corporations or associations is to purchase the land for the reservoir, construct as cheap a dam as possible at the outlet, and to fill the reservoir with water without clearing the reservoir site of its trees and underbrush, or preparing in the slightest degree the new shore line. It is the purpose of the State, however, to see to it that all trees are removed from the reservoir and that the shore line is carefully prepared in such a way as to add to the beauty of the region and to do away with all low and marshy places.

Mr. William T. Donnelly, a consulting engineer in New York City, has recently visited most of the sites chosen for reservoirs, representing the Manufacturers' Association of New York. In his report he states "that there is not the least danger that the flooding will injure the forest or other lands. The work is more in the nature of restoring former lake levels which have been lowered by the bearing down of the barriers which formed them. Wherever deposits were made below the surface of original lake levels there now exist marshes and swamps which cannot be drained and are very unsightly and impossible to use for pleasure or other purposes. The restoration of the original lake levels, in my judgment, can be made to add much to the beauty and attractiveness of the whole region."

The State of New York now owns in the Adirondacks 1,322,736 acres, known as the Adirondack Park. If all of the reservoirs now planned by the commission were constructed, it would involve about 20,109 acres of State holdings, which represents barely 1½ per cent. of the State lands. At least one-half of this land is now worthless swamp and large areas are at the present time subject to intermittent flooding for lumbering purposes, and of this 20,109 acres,

only about one-fourth is forest-covered. It is quite natural that some people, interested properly in the protection and preservation of the Adirondack Park, are jealous of the slightest encroachment upon this area, and, not fully realizing the insignificance of the area of forested lands affected and unmindful of the comparatively large area of swampy and useless ground converted from unsightly places to beautiful lake surfaces, have questioned the desirability of the State or any one else constructing the reservoirs in the Adirondacks. A visit to the sites of the proposed reservoirs will show the various marshes sometimes covered with water and sometimes nearly dry, where vegetation cannot exist permanently, and where in many cases are found the tangled, rotting stumps and branches of trees, creating a far from pleasing view to the visitor.

A MISTAKEN FORESTRY POLICY

The Constitutional Convention of the State of New York, in preparing the new State Constitution, in its enthusiasm to protect the timber of the Adirondack region placed in the Constitution the following provision:

> The lands of the State now owned or hereafter acquired constituting the Forest Reserve, as now fixed by law, shall be forever kept as wild forest lands. They shall not be leased, sold or exchanged or be taken by any corporation, public or private, nor shall the timber thereon be sold, removed, or destroyed.

This clause was adopted by the Constitutional Convention against the urgent protest of the American Forestry Association and was carried at the polls with the rest of the Constitution.

It would serve no useful purpose at this time, perhaps, to record the history of the reform movement that several years ago swept over the State and resulted in hasty and ill-timed action which, until modified by the vote of the people, effectually estops the carrying out of any intelligent plan for the control of the water supply. By that amendment to its Constitution, New York surrendered her proud position at the head of the great work of the conservation of forest resources. The laws of New York actually forbid forestry on its public lands. The experience of the nations whose forest policy is recognized as the most practical has shown that the best way to preserve the forest is to use it intelligently. Trees which have attained maturity should be cut to make way for the younger growth. Every forest is better for careful thinning and clearing. Under the enlightened policy of Germany and other countries, the forest is a source of revenue, while its actual beauty is not injured. New York forests, under the Constitution, are doomed to useless and mischievous decay.

Before actual construction of some of the water-power projects can be undertaken, the Constitution must be amended to permit the necessary utilization of State lands. The commission has prepared a draft of the necessary legislation, and it will be submitted to the lawmakers and the people for consideration and approval. The passage of this amendment of the Constitution is not only necessary for the construction of storage reservoirs, but is equally desirable from the standpoint of forestry itself.

The duty imposed upon the commission by the legislature is the recommendation at the coming session of storage projects arranged in such order as the commission feels they should be developed. In considering these projects, there are five drainage areas that stand out pre-eminently in New York State on account of their general importance. These are the Hudson, the Genesee, the Raquette, the Black, and the Oswego; there are others of importance, such as the Delaware, the Susquehanna, the Oswegatchie, the Grass, the St. Regis, etc., all of which deserve careful study, but for one reason or another the development of reservoirs by the State may be postponed until the more pressing requirements of the above important drainage basins have been fulfilled. The Raquette, the Genesee, and the Hudson have an immense amount of undeveloped power, some of which could be utilized at the new State dams and all of the water power developed or undeveloped would be greatly increased in value, as in general it may be stated that the limit of value of a water power is the minimum flow of the stream. The power on the Black and the Oswego has been pretty thoroughly utilized as far as fall is concerned, but reservoirs on these streams would increase the efficiency of the present developments to a very large extent, the returns being far greater than required to produce adequate interest on the money invested in reservoirs.

POWER POSSIBILITIES OF THE HUDSON RIVER

As the most important for power purposes, as well as its largest stream, the Hudson River is one of the greatest natural as-

sets of the State. Its value as a commercial waterway is well understood, but the supreme importance of this river as a power stream has escaped general attention. It is a fact, nevertheless, that above the head of navigation at Troy, the Hudson River presents an aggregate of developed and undeveloped power sites which render it one of the greatest industrial rivers of the Eastern States. In a distance of only sixty-five miles there are on the main river between Troy and Corinth no less than twenty-eight existing power plants, with a total of 100,733 horse power in use, and a wheel capacity of 117,317 horse power. This represents 14 per cent. of the entire developed horse power in the State of New York. If, with this, we include the developed horse power of the Mohawk, Schroon, Sacandaga, and other tributaries of the Hudson, the total existing power development amounts to 246,117 horse power, or 30 per cent. of the total in the State.

Enormous as this power development now is, it can be greatly increased if means can be provided to equalize the flow of this stream. The Hudson to-day exhibits such tremendous fluctuations that it cannot be relied upon for continuous power and there are periods during the low flow of a dry year where only 20 per cent. of the wheel capacities installed can be utilized.

A very careful study of the records of the flow of the Hudson River has been made by the commission. These records show a difference of 164,000,000,000 cubic feet between the years of greatest and least annual discharge, from 1888 to 1897, inclusive. During the same period, the greatest average annual discharge was at the rate of 11,090 cubic feet per second, while the least average annual run-off was at the rate of 5910 cubic feet per second. The figures for monthly gagings show even greater variation, ranging from 30,900 cubic feet per second for the greatest, to 1600 cubic feet per second for the least average monthly run-off. The Hudson's highest daily discharge at Mechanicsville, which occurred in 1869, was 70,000 cubic feet per second. The lowest was in the season of 1908, when it fell to 700 cubic feet per second, a ratio of 1 to 100.

Recognizing that the difference in flow was of the greatest consequence to industry and property, the commission directed a careful investigation with a view to submitting a remedy.

The results of this investigation indicate the entire feasibility of equalizing the flow of the Hudson, and making available for the present and future needs of the industries of the State an enormous amount of power.

PROJECTED RESERVOIR SYSTEMS

There are three large reservoir systems on the Hudson River which have been very carefully studied, topographical surveys having been made and general plans for the construction of dams and reservoirs completed. These are on the Sacandaga, which will have a capacity of 29 billion cubic feet; the Schroon River system with a capacity of 16 billion cubic feet, and the Indian Lake reservoir with a capacity of 15 billion cubic feet. The cost of these reservoirs complete, including the sums paid for the land, will be $4,500,000, $1,930,000, and $1,500,000, respectively. All of these reservoirs are feasible and will show good returns upon the money expended. They all involve areas of State land, though those upon the Sacandaga and the Schroon are small and include only little tracts that have been taken by the State at tax sales, whereas, the Indian Lake reservoir will require 4100 acres of State land.

It is not likely that more than one of these reservoirs would be built at a time, but the effect of each will be very apparent upon the regulation of the Hudson. The Sacandaga alone would add 1900 cubic feet per second to the minimum flow of the Hudson River at Spiers Falls and would add an aggregate of 80,000 horse power over and above that now developed by existing plants between the mouth of the Sacandaga and Troy, an amount in excess of the total water power now developed at Lowell, Lawrence, and Holyoke. The Sacandaga, rising in the mountains, has 1050 square miles of drainage area above the proposed site for the dam at Conklingville. The dam as proposed will be 1200 feet long, about 95 feet high, and 110 feet thick at the top. It will raise the water 65 feet, 36 feet of which will be available for drawing down for industrial purposes. It is proposed to construct this dam of earth with a concrete core wall 20 feet thick at the base and extending above the flow line. There will be a spillway 875 feet long over solid ledge at the east end of the dam, a length sufficient to carry the water from any conceivable flood. The intake and sluiceway are to be so constructed as to form the head works of future develop-

ments, whenever the time comes that the State desires to utilize the 185 feet of fall in the river from Conklingville to Hadley for developing part or all of the 75,000 horse power that can be created at this point. The cost apart from the reservoir and dam of the power plant to create 75,000 horse power and including the long tunnels through the mountains to a power site would be $3,853,300, or $51 per horse power. This storage would also maintain a minimum flow from Corinth to Troy of 3600 cubic feet per second every day all the year round. This increase of low water flow during the dry months would add 41,000 horse power to these plants when they are most in need of it, for which added value, just recompense should be made by the power owners to the State.

If, as is probable, the time is not ripe for the State to install a power plant and engage in the business of developing electricity, it is at least time to construct such a dam and reservoir under a financial plan providing for the payment of the cost of construction from the sale of water to the parties benefited. The reservoir, if used for storage purposes only, will deliver into the Hudson 1900 cubic feet per second all the year round, or if the stored water is used to reinforce the low water flow of the Hudson during the months when it is most needed it will add 123,000 horse power on the average to the plants on the Hudson during the driest month of the year. The fact that 39 acres of State land are included in the area proposed to be flooded by this reservoir prevents the construction of the Sacandaga project until the Constitutional amendment has been passed. The Schroon Lake and Indian Lake reservoirs, while somewhat smaller than the Sacandaga, would have proportional effects upon the flow of the Hudson and if the three reservoir systems are constructed, the regulation of the Hudson River will be nearly ideal.

The studies for Schroon Lake show two possible developments, one by a large dam at Tumblehead Falls 70 feet high, to create a reservoir measuring 19½ miles long. The artificial lake thus created would have an area of 24½ square miles and would control the entire watershed area of Schroon River above the dam, amounting to 514 square miles. The other project involves the construction of a number of smaller dams at Schroon Lake, Brant Lake, Paradox Lake, and elsewhere, obtaining about the same amount of storage in eleven smaller reservoirs.

PROPOSED IMPROVEMENTS ON THE GENESEE

The Genesee River, flowing into Lake Ontario, and upon which the largest city is Rochester, has always been subject to extreme fluctuations of flow, rising from fifteen to twenty feet above the normal of the river surface, and causing enormous damage both to agricultural land and improvements along the river bank and in the city of Rochester. The highest floods reach the main streets and buildings of Rochester.

There have for many years been general plans for the development of a reservoir at the headwaters of the Genesee and the commission has made surveys and plans for the construction of a dam near Portage, which will impound 18 billion cubic feet of water, 11,250,000,000 of which would be available for commercial purposes. The reservoir would be fifteen miles long and would average nearly a mile wide, with a total area of 13½ square miles. The drainage basin above this reservoir would be 948 square miles. Such a dam and reservoir would control the highest floods we have known on this river and would be capable of creating a water power amounting to 75,000 horse power, peak load, while at the same time furnishing water to maintain the flow in the Genesee River of such volume as would permit the existing power plants at Rochester to run throughout the entire year with water. At the present time these plants are compelled during the dry months to resort to the use of auxiliary steam power at an aggregate cost of approximately $130,000 annually. When we consider that, added to the benefits to the already existing powers on the Genesee and the 75,000 horse power that can be developed at the dam, is the important consideration of the protection of the region from present floods, and the fact also that the Genesee River below the sewers of Rochester would be much improved from a sanitary standpoint, we may see that this project has many reasons for immediate development.

Letchworth Park, a gift to the State, is located at the falls of the Genesee, and if these falls were ever developed by others than the State, the beauty of the falls and river might be seriously impaired, but under the plans of the State, by which a reasonable amount of water is to be always allowed to flow over the falls, the beauty and perma-

nence of these waterfalls are perpetually secured. The best site for the dam on the Genesee will take a small strip of land belonging to the park but will in no way interfere with its usefulness or beauty, whereas, if demanded, a second site can be chosen which, while not as satisfactory as the other, is at least feasible.

ADIRONDACK STREAMS AND LAKES

The Raquette River, flowing into the St. Lawrence, presents unusually attractive features for storage. With a total fall of 1660 feet there are many rapids and vertical falls with possible water-power sites, eleven of which have already been developed, producing an aggregate of 33,000 horse power. The fluctuations of the stream are large. The upland watershed includes many thousand acres of swampy lands and a large area of natural lakes, the best known of which are perhaps Tupper Lake, Little Tupper Lake, Long Lake, and Raquette Lake, all of which can be made to contribute to a storage system which would increase rather than impair their present attractiveness as summer resorts. A large earth dam about 4000 feet long at the foot of Tupper Lake would raise the level of the water over several of the existing ponds, and would flood 5500 acres of swampy land lying adjacent to these ponds, giving an effective storage of 10.3 billion cubic feet and a surface area of 24.7 square miles. This reservoir would submerge 4380 acres of State land and must therefore also wait for the passage of the Constitutional amendment. With the irregular flow of the Raquette, which at Colton Falls is as low as 300 cubic feet per second and rises in times of flood to 18,000 cubic feet per second, the total available net power which it is possible to develop over the existing falls and relying upon the ordinary minimum flow of the river is only 40,000 horse power. The construction of the Tupper Lake dam would increase this power to 150,000 horse power; the Tupper Lake reservoir, therefore, means an increase of 110,000 horse power which can be realized continuously during the ordinary dry year. The cost of the reservoir would be $2,200,000, which means less than $1.25 per horse power per year of maintenance and operation on the basis of the power which it is estimated could be added by this means to that now developed on the river. Other lakes in this basin have been studied and reservoirs which will add much to the regulation of the Raquette River may be constructed by raising their water surface.

Black River with a drainage area of 1930 square miles is next to the Hudson the greatest power producer of the New York streams. During the last season a reconnaissance of the basin of the Black was made and it has been found that storage reservoirs can be built on this river which will add 80,000 horse power to the low water output of the river and its tributaries. The river is more fully developed than any other in the State, the powers being concentrated between Carthage and Lake Ontario, where the river falls 475 feet, of which 396 feet are at least partially developed.

A reconnaissance also of the Oswegatchie, Grass, and St. Regis has been made, but while these rivers have considerable future in the way of water-power development, their present inaccessibility is likely to delay such improvement, though the Oswegatchie has at the present time a reservoir known as Cranberry Lake, with an area of about thirteen square miles, owned by the State of New York.

The water powers of New York State are among its most important assets, there being now developed in this State over 800,000 horse power, and it is possible to develop a million and a half horse power, exclusive of Niagara and the St. Lawrence River. The St. Lawrence alone, falling 100 feet in passing this State, is capable of furnishing probably 400,000 horse power with full development, and on the Raquette there can be developed 190,000 horse power, and yet these resources in New York State, as in all the States of the American Union, have been practically neglected as far as conservation is concerned. Fortunately the present studies of the State Water Supply Commission are on a firm foundation of actual surveys, and the careful and systematic methods of studying the various problems and making recommendations have appealed to the people of the State. At the coming session of the legislature there is every hope that an act will be passed authorizing the State Commission to proceed with the plans it has laid out. Much of the work must wait until the Constitutional amendment has gone into effect. This amendment must pass two legislatures and be approved by the people. With a more enlightened law upon the forestry of State lands and with the great work of water conservation under way,

New York may safely say that she is in the forefront of the States in the conservation of her natural resources. The idea of State supervision and control is not untried, as several foreign countries have long since passed regulating acts concerning their rivers, and our neighbor, the Province of Ontario, has been most successful in like attempts.

THE WATERWAYS CAMPAIGN

BY WILLIAM FLEWELLYN SAUNDERS

THE National Rivers and Harbors Congress which met last month in Washington had an attendance of three thousand delegates, and was addressed by President Taft. The convention declared for a bond issue for the waterways, phrasing the request positively but prudently, saying that the bonds must be issued if current revenues would not do the work. The waterway men do not believe that the current revenues will suffice to build the waterways that the merchants say are absolutely needed for the traffic, and that the engineers have already declared feasible,—the projects which are on the books. The greatest and the best known of these projects is the proposed Lakes and Gulf Deep Waterway from Chicago to New Orleans, which President Roosevelt called the trunk line of the waterways, and on which he tried to get work begun. Sixty million dollars has already been spent by Chicago in building this waterway. Illinois has voted $20,000,000 more. Congress is asked to spend $10,000,000 a year in completing this water highway down to St. Louis and thence to the Gulf. The total cost of the project from Lockport, where the waterway now stops, to Cairo, will be $48,000,000. The deep waterway from Cairo to New Orleans will cost $45,000,000 more. This part of the work, however, Congress must do, it is admitted, as a conservation measure.

The Ohio River improvement is the next in point of importance. Nine feet of water is wanted here from Pittsburg to Cairo. The whole work will cost a little more than $60,000,000. President Taft seems to prefer this project, differing with President Roosevelt on the point.

The upper Mississippi River, from St. Louis to St. Paul, demands $20,000,000 for a 6-foot channel all the year round, and the Missouri River is in such good condition that $5,000,000 would make it well navigable, at least, from Kansas City to St. Louis. This improvement, of course, should not stop here, but the river must be improved so as to restore it to navigation as far up as Fort Benton, where the boats used to carry freight. In my judgment the Congress will at this session put at least these projects on a continuing contract basis, and will also provide for beginning the work on several other important inland projects. The harbors and the lakes will receive more wise attention and judicious appropriation than they ever have got. The days of the "pork barrel" and the influencing of votes by trivial appropriations are gone, and the money appropriated will be spent on these meritorious projects.

The most effective and far-reaching speech ever made in Congress was that of Senator Carter, of Montana, in 1901, when he talked for eight hours, carrying on a filibuster against a Rivers and Harbors bill, and killed it. The speech was effective because it accomplished the purpose; it was far-reaching because it had consequences not dreamed of by Senator Carter, and marked an epoch in the history of transportation in the United States, leading also indirectly to the development of the conservation sentiment now so strong.

Senator Carter was not owned by the railroads; he thought the $50,000,000 carried by the bill could be better spent than in developing waterways, and many strong men in Congress agreed with him. This Rivers and Harbors bill was full of appropriations put in for the purpose of getting votes, and deserved the name of "the pork barrel," which was applied to it. Yet it contained so many appropriations that were really needed to maintain and encourage navigation, and especially inland navigation, that its defeat inflicted serious injury on the waterways interests of the country. The Mississippi and the Ohio rivers almost went out of business. The Missouri River did. Government work along all the rivers rotted, and expensive dredging and revetment fleets of the Government lay tied up to the levees decaying.

The people interested in the waterways who had been hurt, being Americans and so not mercurial, did not break into a fury, but pondered. They did nothing but think for four years while the waterway interests languished. Out of the reflection grew the conviction that two things must be done.

First.—Congress must annually pass a sufficient appropriation bill for rivers and harbors, the bill to have equal standing on the budget with the bills appropriating for the army, the navy, and the postal service.

Second.—Congress must begin to improve the waterways by a comprehensive and systematic plan, putting the most important projects first and placing each on the continuing contract system, originated by Senator Frye, the system by which the Panama Canal is being built.

In 1907 the Lakes to the Gulf Association asked President Roosevelt to go down the Mississippi River and look at the conditions himself; and at the same time formally petitioned him to appoint a commission to recommend a general plan of waterway development. He did both, and took with him down the river the members of the new commission, which he called the Inland Waterways Commission. Gifford Pinchot was one of these commissioners, and on that trip down the river he found the opportunity which he has used so wisely. Seventeen Governors of States accompanied the President's party. Mr. Pinchot found them eager to know what the active and passive conservation measures meant for their States. He told them. President Roosevelt urged waterway improvement and conservation in all of his speeches going down the river, and so did the Governors and Mr. Pinchot. All of them spoke to an audience of 5000 delegates at the Deep Waterways Convention in Memphis, and the speeches from St. Louis to the end of the convention inspired more than half a million people directly.

An enthusiastic convention of the National Rivers and Harbors Congress in Washington followed and the conference of State Governors to adopt conservation plans was held, enlarging again the conservation influence.

President Taft was persuaded to include in his tour of the country last October a trip down the Mississippi River from St. Louis to New Orleans. The President was accompanied by several members of his cabinet, Secretary Dickinson, Secretary Nagel, and Postmaster General Hitchcock, and on other boats were the Governors of twenty-seven States and 214 members of Congress, both Senators and Representatives, Speaker Cannon with them. A fleet of steamboats and torpedo-boat destroyers followed the boats of the President, the Governors, and the Congressmen. The steamboats carried delegates from forty-six States to the New Orleans Deep Waterway Convention, where the President made an address. The voyage took nearly five days. Mr. Pinchot was again of the party accompanying the Governors. For more than a week all who read newspapers had to think about waterways development and conservation. A few weeks later came Senator Burton and the members of the National Waterways Commission, all members of Congress, whose European trip had prevented them from accompanying the President's party. One group of these commissioners headed by Senator Burton went all the way down the Mississippi River, from St. Paul to New Orleans; and another group, including Chairman Alexander, of the Rivers and Harbors Committee of the House, went from Kansas City to St. Louis examining the Missouri River.

There will be legislation, too, upon railway rates as they affect river carriers, an exceedingly important thing. It is suggested that Congress shall enlarge the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission, so that it may prevent railways from driving water lines out of business by making unreasonably low rates between points where there is water competition, recovering loss at the expense of places which have no water competition. This legislation would save the boat lines, but would deprive the cities on the waterways of their natural advantage of situation, and the problem, like all these freight-rate problems, is obscure. The only solution is that the Interstate Commerce Commission should have the power of making all the rates of the railways, and I doubt if the country is ready for that yet.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

CAN AMERICA PRODUCE MERCHANT SEAMEN?

PROPHESYING that before another twenty years have passed,—the Panama Canal having been in the meantime completed,—America will own a respectable fleet of merchant ships, "A British Marine Officer" discusses in the *Atlantic Monthly* the question, "Who will man her ships, American or foreign seamen?" He handles his subject in a thoroughly seamanlike manner; and it is evident throughout the article that, in matters pertaining to "a life on the ocean wave," the writer knows what he is talking about. He describes himself as "one who has had sixteen years' experience in all classes of British merchant ships, —sail, tramps, and liners."

It is a well-known fact that "the sea as a profession is becoming more discredited every year, and parents now think twice before allowing their sons to follow it." Even in maritime England, the natural home of sailors, the number of boys choosing the sea as their calling is growing smaller every year: they can do better for themselves working ashore. This is a direct result of compulsory education. As regards a similar disinclination for a seafaring life, among American boys, the *Atlantic Monthly* writer says: "It is a well-established fact that the laboring classes of America are better educated and possess a wider knowledge of things in general than the corresponding classes in any European country." And when one considers the life of an able seaman in the forecastle of a modern freight steamer it is not to be wondered at "that a man even of moderate education does not find before the mast adequate compensation for his learning." It must be admitted that the picture he draws of existing conditions before the mast is sufficiently forbidding:

> Let us take, for instance, an ordinary freight steamer of about three thousand tons, such as the future American mercantile marine will be chiefly composed of. Vessels of this class carry about six able seamen. The men are usually housed in a room (forecastle), which is situated in close proximity to chain-lockers, paint-lockers, and the more objectionable quarters of the ship. The forecastles are usually evil-smelling, badly lighted and ventilated, and privacy cannot be obtained anywhere. The watch-and-watch system prevents sailors from getting more than three and a half hours' consecutive sleep at any time while the ship is at sea. . . . The food is of the coarsest and poorest quality, and the amount allowed per man is just sufficient to keep body and soul together, with the aid of a stout belt. It is badly cooked and badly served, and is usually more fit for pigs than humans.

Though the pay, in comparison with shore labor, is fairly good, the work at sea is "one continual round of steering, swabbing, and scaling and painting iron-rust." In time the A.B. may become boatswain, and, "if he still keeps at it, he may eventually reach command." But the "British Marine Officer" thinks it is safe to say that "long before he has qualified for boatswain he will have thrown the sea up in disgust, looking upon it in the only way a sane person can, —as a life fit for dogs and fools only." He is also of opinion that as a seaman's life offers no inducement "to the average American with an average American education," the future American mercantile marine will be manned chiefly by foreign seamen. Besides, there "is no need for the American youth to turn his face seaward. There is plenty of room for him on dry land, and there his possibilities are boundless."

A matter of important bearing on this question is the provision of training ships. At present these can be seen "in England, anchored in every harbor or river of importance." They are divided into three classes: cadet, charity, and reformatory ships. The first-named class is for sons of well-to-do parents. In America, if her social conditions remained unchanged, "such institutions as charity and reformatory ships cannot take root." America will therefore have to find other ways and means to increase the number of her native seamen.

The fact must not be lost sight of that with the passing of the sailing ship the seaman's life underwent a complete change. Romance and adventure have become things of the past. In place of periods of diversions, when "catching sharks, harpooning dolphins and porpoises, singing, dancing, telling yarns,

and reading over old love-letters" could be indulged in, the steamer has nothing to offer. The toil is "soul-killing and mind-destroying; there is no time for study or recreation; singing and dancing are unknown." In port the work of loading or discharging goes on night and day, "Sunday or Monday, Christmas or any other day."

No day is held sacred in the modern freight steamer. . . . If one felt inclined to worship one's God by attending church it would be impossible to do so. No; the modern sailor must not indulge in such luxuries as a God, a soul, prayers, or Sundays. . . . On the west coast of Africa can be seen ships flying the British flag loading or unloading cargo on Sundays, while in full view can be seen mission stations and churches, with their ministers preaching to a bunch of negroes, exhorting them to remember their Creator in the day of their youth, and to respect the Sabbath and keep it holy. What mockery! . . . Can one blame the sailors when they get ashore for trying to forget their dog's life in debauchery and drink?

But the most serious obstacle to the production of seamen by America, in the view of the "British Marine Officer," seems to be that obedience to those in authority is an element sadly lacking in the make-up of the American character. "Judged from a European standpoint," he says, "Americans are the most lawless people among civilized nations." The American as an individual "seems to demand that his recognition of the law should have the force of a policeman's club at the back of it." Reference is also made to the forcing of jails in America and the lynching of prisoners without due trial. Further we are told:

Democracy, as interpreted in America, tends to make Jack believe that he is as good as his master. Well, aboard ship Jack never was, and never will be, as good as his master. Familiarity between master and man can never exist if discipline is to be maintained. . . . The Tom-Dick-and-Harry style of addressing men so dear to American ideas of democracy will not hold for a moment. The line of demarcation between the men abaft the mast and those before must be respected.

Our writer comes to the conclusion,

taking into consideration the lovable cussedness of the native-born American, his absolute contempt for the law and rule by moral force, his very often mistaken notions of true democracy, and the conditions under which the modern steamboat sailormen lives, that there seems little possibility of the American ever being licked into shape as a man before the mast in the present-day freight steamer.

Characterizing the negro as a good coasting sailor, but as a rank failure when on foreign voyages, and discussing the chances of a supply of seamen for our ships from England, Germany, and Scandinavia (Norway and Sweden), the three typical maritime countries, the "British Marine Officer" sums up his observations with the declaration of his belief that the future American mercantile marine will be "manned chiefly by Scandinavians and officered by New England men." The latter, he says, are "born to command or to hold positions of authority."

MODERN STATECRAFT WEIGHED IN THE BALANCE

WHY do our systems of government lag behind in the procession of progress? Why does statesmanship fall so far short of its real mission? Modern government has rarely been the subject of so severe and at the same time passionless an arraignment as in an article with these questions for its basis which has been contributed to the *Tilskueren* (Copenhagen) by Dr. Sigurd Ibsen, son of the famous Norwegian poet and dramatist.

The elder Ibsen in his lifetime made the shortcomings of society the theme for nearly all the plays that came from his pen during the last twenty years of his activity. But he went at it with the poet's point of view. He showed the cramping influence of the ills that beset society or the individual, on the development of the soul. With his familiar tendency toward mysticism and symbol, he made his readers perceive, as in a glass darkly, what society is and what it might be, kindling their imagination but leaving them to work out their own collective salvation as best they could. The son, in the article contributed to the Danish magazine, approaches the task with the practical eye and purpose of the skilled mechanician who makes his survey and prepares to mend. And he does not lack equipment. As a one-time member of the Norwegian Cabinet he has had his hand on the lever and knows just

when and how the machinery of government fails to respond.

Science, both abstract and in its application, art, literature, industry, are making constant progress, says Dr. Ibsen. It is out of the question that within these domains development could be towards a more primitive stage. Political changes on the other hand do not always make for advancement. Development in our political systems may indeed be along reactionary lines. Science, art, literature, in what they produce generally afford the highest expression of contemporaneous culture. Political systems, on the other hand, have only exceptionally reached even a relative degree of perfection. In the minds of enlightened people in any age there generally has existed a clear consciousness of what government should be which has been far ahead of the existing practice and has constituted the sole guarantee for future reforms in the methods of government.

Then the contrast is presented. How could there have been any substantial advancement in science and in art if the scientist and artist had contented themselves with merely following in the footsteps of even the enlightened layman? Fortunately for art and science, and fortunately for humanity, the writer says, it is the artist and the scientist who set the pace in every reach for higher levels with the rest of humanity following. But in the field of politics one depends upon that consciousness which makes for all progress to grow spontaneously in the lay mind, and it is from such lay opinion all initiative emanates, while those who should be the pacemakers follow often reluctantly.

Dr. Ibsen can see the "Kulturkampf" extending into the domain of politics, but declares it would be an error to ascribe this to any exaggerated demands on the part of the governed of to-day.

> The problems involved are such that they should no longer be regarded as problems. If for all that they are still awaiting solution this fact alone goes to show how imperfect our systems of government are when it comes to practice. . . . In countries that are backward in culture the governed are grateful if the leading men in the state do not commit too many blunders or cause too many costly complications. In more advanced nations it is regarded as quite satisfactory if the system of government but reflects the average view on governmental wisdom, harbored by the lay mind. As might be expected, this is most apparent in international politics,—the branch which has been least affected by modern culture. We had an instance of this last winter when we received the news of the Franco-German *entente* with reference to Morocco, and it became plain at once that without reason a war cloud had hung over Europe for years which time and time again had threatened to discharge its thunders. For the treaty did not contain a single clause which might not have been agreed upon when the differences first arose. Diplomacy at last had adjusted itself,—to what? To nothing but an order of things that could not in common sense have been otherwise. The European press admitted this, but nevertheless gave vent to eulogy, loud and long, because, as the newspapers said again and again, this latest diplomatic attainment involved a victory for "common sense." . . . If one should venture to felicitate a poet or an explorer on the ground that his attainments give evidence of "common sense," I imagine it would be accepted as a very dubious compliment.

The slim progress made at The Hague is brought forward as another instance where diplomacy has fallen woefully short of its mission. The desire for universal peace and the propaganda for disarmament never were greater and, yet, at the beginning of the twentieth century the danger of war is not less remote than at any earlier period in the world's history. It is always in the air, as every one might have convinced himself a little while ago when the Balkan imbroglio came near setting Europe afire, though not one of the great powers desired or was prepared for war.

> In international politics we are subjected to what is termed conveniently "the situation," and we are so accustomed to this that we take it for granted without giving a thought to the fact that it lays bare the weakness of our political machinery in the most pitiless manner. What would be the verdict on a railroad management which would permit such an unknown and uncertain quantity as "the situation" to remain a permanent factor in the conduct of its traffic? Everything that human ingenuity and human foresight can devise is applied for the protection of human life and merchandise in transit. Our age insures itself against chance in every domain. Does it not seem a little topsy-turvy, this notion that when the welfare of an entire nation is at stake one must trust to luck for the issue?

Again Dr. Ibsen, applying his method of analysis and his mode of argument to the economic branch of government, weighs modern statecraft in the balance and finds it wanting. All is confusion. The product, through lack of government regulation, has established a tyranny over the producer. Governmental action is limited to "groping social-economic legislation, characterized by the crudest empiricism." The *laissez-faire*

principle obtains everywhere. This is in direct conflict with every principle of civilization which demands systematization to the end that a practical regulation of the conditions of human life may be attained. The demand that we pass from chaos to order is universal.

The trusts are one expression of this demand. Socialism, though sprung from different motives, is another. These, in other respects so divergent movements, may be regarded as two gangs of laborers which, each from its end, is engaged in the task of boring a tunnel through a mountain of governmental stupidity.

Dr. Ibsen holds that all imperfections in the existing order of society have their origin in that consideration, not to say reverence, for power which has been implanted in man through centuries of enforced practice and which has made power an object worth seeking for its own sake. In centuries gone by, power sat enthroned, self-sufficient and offering no apology.

In these latter days, with the advance of civilization, even power has begun to grow embarrassed with its own nakedness, and is looking about for garments of justice. In international politics this garb of justice and morality is limited to the traditional fig-leaf of respectability.

The writer holds that the true aim of statecraft is not to make a nation powerful but to make a people happy. Power he regards as a permanent institution, however. Even History bows to it. Witness her verdict on kings in exile and generals in defeat.

There is one feature of Dr. Ibsen's article that at first glance might be deemed inconsistent with his plea for universal happiness. This is his defense of slavery.

It must be acknowledged that slavery was an evil necessary in the interest of culture where industry depended on manual labor alone and where consequently production was too scant to afford more than a frugal subsistence. For, inasmuch as culture calls for a certain degree of prosperity and the leisure that goes with prosperity,—and it is better that culture should thrive with one class than not at all,—it must be regarded as in the interest of progress that one class should be kept down and another class favored at its expense so that at least those privileged few may exercise the functions of history and civilization.

Dr. Ibsen announces that he has in view another installment which will contain the outline of a constructive program.

SOCIALIST GAINS IN THE GERMAN ELECTIONS

THE great Socialistic victories in the recent German elections, in some instances utterly unexpected, form the main topic of discussion both in the general and in the Socialist press of the Fatherland. All sides concede that the increase in the Socialist vote is to a large degree a protest against the burden imposed by the so-called financial reforms which the government forced the bloc in the Reichstag to vote in order that it should be able to build more *Dreadnoughts*. And so we witness a spectacle, very rare in Germany, of one of the most popular Conservative papers, the *Reichsbote,* turning against its own political leaders and denouncing the exorbitant budget. It had the alternative of incurring the displeasure of its political protagonists or losing in circulation, and it bravely chose the less expensive of the two evils. However, the budget does not seem to account for all, and the *Dresdener Nachrichten,* the leading Conservative sheet of Saxony, has this to say by way of explanation and warning:

Let us be honest. The great successes won by the Social Democracy are due in the last instance to her splendid organization and tireless energy and propaganda. In respect of the efforts put forth by the Social Democratic party none of the bourgeois parties can even distantly approach it. This Socialist success reveals an evil which should provide the Conservatives and National Liberals plenty of food for thought. Is it not terrible that these two parties should not be able to inspire their adherents with the same spirit of self-sacrifice, and with the same sense of their political duty as the Social Democracy?

In every part of Germany where elections were held, the Socialist gains were marked. But the most important elections took place in Saxony, Baden, and in Berlin, and it is in those places, therefore, that the results appear most striking. In Saxony the Socialists elected twenty-five members to the Landtag. Previously they had but one seat. The Baden Landtag now has twenty Socialist delegates, a gain of eight. The Berlin Socialists added three to their representation in the Prussian Landtag, and almost doubled their vote of last year.

The most interesting situation is presented by Saxony, where the plural system of voting was tried for the first time. This system was designed with a view to keeping down

the Socialist vote, and if it proved satisfactory it was to be introduced in Prussia and elsewhere. The plural system hits hardest at the Socialist vote, because it gives an additional vote to every person with a taxable income of 1600 marks, more votes for more property, and another vote for a high school or university education. As Socialism draws its chief strength from factory workmen and general laborers there were few Socialist voters who could cast three or four votes for their party. In view of this fact it is extremely remarkable that the Conservatives and National Liberals who chiefly profit by this system lost so heavily to the Socialists. From a party who with their forty-six members controlled an absolute majority in the Saxony Landtag, they were reduced to a minority party with but twenty-eight representatives. At the regular election they won only twelve seats, and it was due to the assistance which the Liberals and in some instances even the Freisinnige gave to the Conservatives in the by-election that they succeeded in obtaining sixteen more. The Landtags of Saxony and Baden are now constituted as follows:

	1909	1907
Saxony:		
Conservatives	28	46
National Liberals	28	31
Reformers	1	1
Freisinnige	3	8
Social Democrats	25	1
Baden:		
Center	26	28
National Liberals	17	23
Democrats	6	5
Conservatives	3	4
Freisinnige	1	1
Social Democrats	20	12

Numerically the Socialist party in Saxony leads with its 489,427 votes as against the 338,043 of the National Liberals, who follow second in rank. What that would have meant under a system of equal suffrage is explained by Hermann Fleissner in an article in *Die Neue Zeit:*

> With one vote for each man all the opposing parties combined would scarcely have elected more than twelve of their candidates. This may be seen by taking one of the cities as an example. In the seven election districts of Leipzig the Socialists had 62,856 votes, and all the other parties combined 85,121. The number of Social Democratic voters, however, was 38,726, while that of all the other parties was only 28,314. Applying this ratio to the entire kingdom of Saxony there were 305,892 Socialist voters to 260,897 of all the other parties together. It is very probable, therefore, that the Social Democracy would have received an *absolute majority* of all the votes.

Discussing the probable effect of the election results on the politics of Saxony, Fleissner says:

> The Liberal and Socialist representatives in the Landtag form a two-thirds majority. They are, therefore, able to pass legislation without the aid of the Conservatives. That they will do so in some instances is by no means unlikely. For example, they both favor a redivision of the election districts. If this is done properly in conformity with the required changes, the position of the Conservatives will be still further weakened. In any event, the Social Democracy will for the first time constitute an important factor in the Saxony Parliament. From a mere personal point of view the new Landtag will have quite a different complexion. Many of the most prominent members of the Saxony chamber have dropped out. Dr. Meinert, for many years its president and leading intellect of the agrarians, the so-called uncrowned King of Saxony, has been called to the upper chamber.

IS SANE AND HONEST JOURNALISM POSSIBLE?

IT is, we think, one of the most hopeful signs of the times in regard to the newspaper press that editors and journalists are found willing to admit that there is much to be desired in the way of reform in the daily sheets that bring into our homes the records of the world's doings. From time to time, and at no great intervals either, such queries are propounded as "Is an honest newspaper possible?" "What does the public want in its daily press?" and in every case the reply is given that not only is an honest journal possible but that the public would welcome it, and that what the country is waiting for is, in the words of a New York editor, "an independent newspaper which treats its reader not as a child nor a sage, neither as a hero nor a fool, but as a person to be taught tactfully to stand upon his own feet,—a paper which gives the Senator and the shopgirl what they both want to read and are the better for reading."

One of the most useful contributions to the literature of the subject appeared in the November issue of the *American Journal of Sociology,* from the pen of "An Independent Journalist," the question discussed being "Is an honest and sane newspaper press possible?" This writer takes the position that "the American newspaper of to-day has se-

rious vices, faults, and shortcomings, as well as great virtues; that it has gained in some directions, improved some of its work, and lost in other directions." He says: "The same newspaper arouses your enthusiasm at one time so that you write, or are tempted to write, to the editor warmly thanking him for his noble efforts, and provokes your anger and disgust at another time, so that you are ready to denounce it at the breakfast-table as a poisoner of the public mind and an enemy of decency and truth." Citing the statement that "only generous endowment could enable a great newspaper to be true to its highest ideals,—to be honest in all things, to tell the truth boldly, to eschew sensationalism and vulgarity,'—and alluding to the fact that wealthy philanthropists have been urged to establish an "exemplary," a "model newspaper," "An Independent Journalist" (for brevity's sake, hereafter referred to in this article as A. I. J.) asks "Cannot, then, the ordinary commercial newspaper rise to and maintain itself on the highest plane?" He then proceeds to discover "what ails the average 'big' commercial newspaper," purposely using the word "big" for the following reason:

No one who is familiar with the American daily press will deny that we have a number of local or small newspapers that are as excellent as human institutions can be. That is, there are newspapers that publish only news fit to print; that never deliberately falsify or misrepresent; that have convictions and the courage to apply them to the events, issues, and personalities of the day; that employ competent and self-respecting reporters and correspondents and, consequently, are well written from first page to last and that are read by educated persons with pleasure and profit.

This being the case, "cannot the big newspapers be equally clean, sensible, and upright?" A. I. J. frankly states that one of the vices of the big newspapers is what is called "faking." Faking assumes many forms, some of which are base and profoundly immoral, while all of them are "offensive and inexcusable." A little honesty and intelligence on the part of the reporters and special writers would render it totally unnecessary; for while "the public does prefer the dramatic, the romantic, the extraordinary," it does want the truth.

Another and a more serious newspaper vice, one of which public-spirited men and women complain most bitterly, is the dishonest treatment in the news columns of political, industrial, social, and other "contentious subjects." Now, a newspaper "is entitled to its opinions and to its own interpretation of facts; but the public is, above all, entitled to the facts,—to the truth." And however true it may be that there is no juster court than enlightened public opinion, it is self-evident that "public opinion cannot become enlightened, and discussion cannot be profitable where the press perverts, distorts, suppresses, juggles with the facts."

The influence of the powerful advertisers on the press is, says A. I. J., "thoroughly pernicious."

There are advertisers who do not hesitate to demand either silence or positive championship of their side of a question. There are theatrical managers who will not tolerate adverse criticisms of their productions, and who actually dictate dismissals of writers. There are brewers who drop newspapers for what they consider excessive devotion to prohibition or law and decency. There are corporations that will not give any "business" to papers that are fair and impartial in their treatment of labor unions, of strikes, of injunctions. There are dairy interests that will promptly visit their displeasure on editors who can see no justice in a high tax on oleomargarine that is honestly labeled and sold for what it is. . . . The fundamental trouble is that too many newspapers are actually at the mercy of advertisers. The advertisers, too, often feel that they are subsidizing certain newspapers,—that they are not getting the full worth of their money in returns,—and, of course, subsidizers have rights. Making, however, full allowance for this aspect of the case, it remains true that newspapers are not as independent, as consistent, as courageous as they might be.

As to sanity and efficiency in the handling of matter generally, A. I. J. observes: "The yellow newspapers have had a terribly demoralizing effect on the presentation of news and its display. . . . Everything is sacrificed to liveliness." Crazy, silly, and grotesque headlines are employed; and reporters, special writers, and critics become addicted to what has been called the "catastrophic" style,—straining after bold, picturesque, impressive language. Then, again, the advertising columns of many newspapers call loudly for an overhauling and a cleansing. "Newspapers, like builders of tenements, like money-lenders, must manage to live without fostering or breeding immorality and dishonesty." A. I. J. believes that in a policy of honesty and sanity for our newspapers there would be no permanent loss. Temporary loss there might be; but in the end independence, intelligence, reasonable courage, integrity, and efficiency would bring their reward in journalism as in everything else. The newspapers' motto should be "Trust the public."

WILL DUTCH OR ENGLISH BE THE LANGUAGE OF SOUTH AFRICA?

NOTWITHSTANDING the fact that English and Dutch have been put on equal legal footing in the late South African republics the desire and agitation for the supremacy of the Netherland tongue there has by no means ceased. On the contrary, there is a silent but strong undercurrent among the Boers flowing in the direction of the accomplishment of that object. And this is being fostered by articles appearing in the public press of Holland. One such recently appeared in the *Hollandsche Revue* of Haarlem.

"What is to be the fate of our race and tongue in the face of mighty England and the English world language?" And he answers: "What has happened within our knowledge to other peoples may perhaps intimate what the future will bring about also there." Races and languages imagined dead have risen Lazarus-like, and have demanded and secured a place of their own under the sun. Disintegrated Germany and Italy have each been unified and become powerful. The great Turkish Empire has fallen asunder, and from its severed parts have been formed the independent states of Greece, Servia, Bulgaria, Roumania, and Montenegro. In Hungary, Bohemia, and Flemish Belgium the half-dead races and languages have sprung into vigorous life, the smaller no less than the greater. Why should not a similar movement among the Boers be successful?

But it may be argued: The situation of the Boers, with their less than one million inhabitants and their African dialect, is far different from that of the European races and language once threatened with extinction.

In South Africa a small isolated people is confronted by the greatest colonial power of our age. And the Boer dialect stands over against the most widely spread of world-languages. Is not such a struggle too unequal, nay hopeless?

And yet in Europe also two feeble races can be cited which at the opening of the nineteenth century were in as desperate a case as the Boers, each opposed by a mighty race and an all-absorbing language, and which yet did not perish, —the Czechs of Bohemia and the Flemings of Belgium.

The former, with their decaying Slavonic tongue, stood over against mighty Germany and the rich, vigorous German language. Till 1820 everything in Bohemia was German. German was the language of the aristocracy, the church, the university, of politics, of the school, of the theater. Only at the hearthstones of the humbler classes, of laborers and peasants, was heard the despised native tongue. And yet in less than a century the Slavonic has come to the throne again. In the capital, Prague, by the side of the moribund German university, with a few hundred students, there stands to-day a Czech institution of learning with attendants numbering a couple of thousands.

The Flemish movement in Belgium offers another example. Beginning with the expatriation of the Protestant, industrious and enterprising Flemings, during the revolt against Spain, from the southern provinces of the Netherlands to those of the north, and culminating in the revolution of 1830 which resulted in the establishment of the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, the Flemish race and tongue were more and more suppressed until they seemed almost completely blotted out. At the latter period French became the language of the country.

The Flemish was banished from all official circles and soon was to be heard only here and there among the lower classes. Every attempt to start a Flemish paper met with utter failure in the face of the multitude of French dailies and weeklies. Who would not have prophesied during the ten years from 1830 to 1840 that the Flemish race and tongue in Belgium would utterly disappear before the victorious language and the mighty intellectual force of the French? And yet the very contrary happened. In 1840 came the awakening brought about by the Flemish movement under the leadership of Willems and his associates. And to-day Flemish is put on an almost equal footing with the French in the courts and even in the Chambers; its literature has a recognized place in the world of letters, and its 300,000 copies of penny newspapers are fast crowding out the French journals in the Flemish provinces.

Now, continues this Dutch writer, to one who knows the conditions in South Africa, the Boers, in spite of the still bleeding wounds left by their military defeat, are in far better shape than were the Flemings at the time of the Belgian revolution in 1830.

For the moral qualities which the Flemings lacked at that time are found in the highest degree among the Boers,—a conscious sense of worth and a heroism ready to sacrifice everything for liberty and independence.

And the Boers have begun the struggle under far better conditions than did their kinsmen, the Flemings. These had to wait more than forty years for the law authorizing the use of Flemish in the courts, while the first speech in the native tongue in the Belgium Parliament dates only from 1888. The Boers, on the other hand, have used their native tongue in the parliaments of Capetown, Pretoria, and Bloemfontein from the first day, almost after their final defeat on the battle-field.

OZONE FOR EVERYONE

WHEN Van Marvin first noted ozone in 1783, while making experiments, he was impressed with the idea that it was a distinct body, but was not able to bring it before the world. Science knew nothing of it, therefore, until 1840, when Schoenbein, the German chemist, fully recognized and named it and established it as a distinct individual body. A recent issue of the *Journal* (Paris) contains an article on the practical possibilities of ozone as demonstrated by recent experiments of an eminent French inventor.

In one way, we are told in this article, ozone is related to electricity. In several ways it is a natural agent quite as powerful for good.

It is not a new body, but a peculiar condition of an old body, an intense form of oxygen at its best. It is oxygen that has multiplied itself to acquire by that multiplication strange and peculiar superiority. It is stronger in the power to burn with intense fire than any known gas or chemical. Man has never produced or obtained a flame equal to it. It is a changing, very restless gas which frees itself from its normal form instantly when placed in the presence of any organic matter; and as soon as free it falls upon that matter and deluges it with torrents of triple-strength oxygen. The chemical expressions "cession of oxygen" and "sudden oxidation" mean, in plain words, ardent combustion. When ozone is freed from oxygen it flames so fiercely that no microbe or microbe's toxin can resist it. It destroys the poison of the residues of putrefaction as well as every impurity in the air or in the water. Yet while it does all this, it acts beneficently upon the higher organisms. By it the human blood is stimulated and regenerated. That is why the air of the mountains, like the air of the ocean (both rich in ozone), tones and strengthens the sick. But it must be remembered that ozone is a flaming fire, and that to play with fire is dangerous.

The known fact that the ozone in the air is good for men and animals and that it is a powerful annihilator of microbes, suggests to the writer of this article the feasibility of manufacturing it to sterilize the drinking water in general use, to purify the air of dwellings, and to use in the treatment of disease. In troubles due to poverty of the blood, in blood poisoning, and in diseases induced by microbes, ozone may be said to be a specific.

Ozone is used in various industries in the preparation of certain chemical products, in metallurgy, in manufacturing perfumes, in brewing beer, and in the making of sugar. It is used easily and simply in breweries to sterilize water, and the same method could be used in families. To sterilize the water used for the household would be to shorten the list of victims of typhoid. Hitherto very large and cumbersome and expensive machines have been the only ones used,—machines hard to run and demanding great care and expense. But late discoveries and new methods have made it clear that the ozanator can be made so practical and at so little cost that it will be as easy to use as a water filter, or as any of the necessary instruments of hygiene.

Professor Paton, the inventor of numerous electrical innovations, recently exhibited in Paris an ozonating apparatus for which the power is furnished either by a pair of generators or by a pile-battery with an induction bobbin. Such an apparatus sterilizes from 25 quarts to 35 quarts per hour, the cost of running the machine being less than two mills per quart.

This French machine is so arranged as to do its work immediately by turning a faucet, which opens and closes the access to the water and to the current of ozone simultaneously. Neither current can pass without the other. Driven by the pressure of the current through a pulverizer-tube, under a retort, the water pays out in a thin layer and in dew, along the sides of the conduit, where it receives the full force of the current of ozone. It cannot pay out one drop except as the vacuum is produced by its running out. As it runs out every drop,—and every atom of a drop,—is forced to take in ozoned air in rigorously exact proportion to its output. As fast as the current of water escapes it is thoroughly mingled with the current of ozone.

When the water with its excess of ozone runs into the jar placed to receive it, it is so sterilized that a severe chemical examination made by Professor Miquel, of the Municipal Laboratory of Montsouris (Paris), revealed no impurity, although the water came from rivers known to be polluted. Water contaminated for the test was, when ozonated, purer than spring water and more healthful than spring water, because it was more agreeable to the taste and more aerated.

This French writer maintains that when our electricians seize the meaning of the work done by this very simple method, their productions will go far toward diminishing our death rate. A practical electrician can, he claims, so modify the French machine as to bring it within the general reach and insure the majority against diseases due to microbes. With little trouble the machine shown in Paris could be made for easy use in the most inaccessible logging-camp, backwoods tavern, isolated convent, boarding-school, or military post. It could be used in hospitals and in factories. No great power house or electric plant would be required.

VISCOUNT MORLEY, SECRETARY OF STATE FOR INDIA, A LIBERAL LEADER

LORD ROSEBERY, FORMER PREMIER OF ENGLAND

BARON CURZON, OF KEDLESTON, FORMERLY VICEROY OF INDIA

EMINENT MEMBERS OF THE BRITISH HOUSE OF LORDS WHO TOOK PART IN THE BUDGET DEBATE

THE LORDS' ATTACK ON THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION

BY a majority of 215 (349 ayes to 134 noes) the lower House of the British parliament on the second of last month declared "that the action of the House of Lords in refusing to pass into law the financial provisions made by this chamber for the expenses of the year was a breach of the Constitution and a usurpation of the rights of the House of Commons." In moving this resolution Premier Asquith asserted, amid the wildest demonstrations of enthusiasm on the part of his hearers, that the circumstances under which the Commons were meeting that afternoon were "without example in the history of the British Parliament." It is somewhat difficult for citizens of a republic like ourselves to realize the state of feeling produced in the minds of the English people by the unprecedented act of the House of Lords in rejecting the Budget. That the Upper House should ruthlessly trample in the dust the most cherished traditions of centuries, should brazenly rob the Commons of what they had always held to be their one unassailable right, has evoked a sentiment nearly akin to horror in the hearts of our stolid British cousins, and has caused them to realize that a certain phrase of Dickens', often used in jest, accurately describes a grim reality, that "the country is going to the demnition bow-wows."

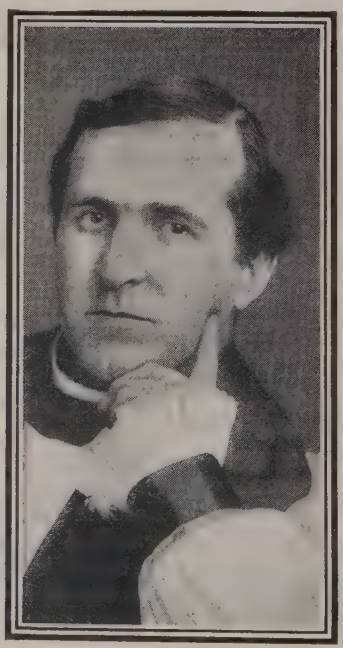
It is no new thing for the House of Lords to reject bills that have come up to it from the Lower House; but, as Prof. L. T. Hobhouse points out in the *Contemporary Review* for December, "however much the Lords might cripple Liberal legislation, there remained always, it was supposed, one department in which the House of Commons was omnipotent."

The raising and expenditure of public money was in the hands of the Commons alone. As to its time, amount, method, form, the provision of the national revenue was in the sole control of the representative House. It was the free gift of the Commons to the King, and its appropriation to the King's service was at the un-

fettered discretion of the same authority. Here at least was solid constitutional ground. The right of veto on legislation the Lords had always retained. True, they had pressed it in this Parliament to a point which was making the Constitution unworkable, and called urgently for a revision which would restrict if it did not abolish their power. Still it could not be said that they were formally in the wrong. The right of legislative veto they had always possessed, and though it was understood that there were limits to its employment, these limits had never been accurately laid down. It had been left to the good sense of the peers themselves to interpret with impartiality their function as a revising chamber, and though the interpretation had become impossible, and the impartiality was a vanished illusion, it still could not be said that there was any definite rule of the Constitution which had been openly destroyed.

But finance had always stood upon a totally different footing from general legislation. In this department the sole authority of the House of Commons was "the very heart of the Constitution." As long ago as the seventeenth century, when the Lords had attempted to meddle in the matter, their claim to do so "had been summarily extinguished." Resolutions passed in 1671 and 1678 "had affirmed the rights of the Commons in unmistakable terms," and had received from the Lords themselves "tacit and continued acquiescence." In 1860 an attempt was made to challenge the authority of the House of Commons, and now the matter "was settled once and for all by the inclusion of all the financial provisions of the year in a single bill which the peers could not amend." Such a contingency as their rejection of it was never dreamed of. In the action of the Lords on the Budget Professor Hobhouse sees the peril of an unwritten Constitution, which works well as long as, on the whole, men are loyally desirous to work it. Men of all shades of opinion have accepted the veto of the Lords on legislation, although they have recognized that its existence "has produced an *impasse* and that some amendment of the Constitution is necessary." But this change was to be brought about by constitutional means. Instead, the Lords have brought into use "a power which has long been recognized as a mere form, and which for its present suggested purpose has never been exercised in history." While there is something to be said "for the submission of contested measures of high importance to a direct popular vote," what the Lords have chosen to ignore is "the elementary fact that

MARQUIS OF LANSDOWNE, FORMER SECRETARY FOREIGN AFFAIRS



RT. REV. COSMO GORDON LANG, ARCHBISHOP OF YORK AND A PEER

EARL OF CREWE, SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES, LIBERAL PEER

EMINENT MEMBERS OF THE BRITISH HOUSE OF LORDS WHO TOOK PART IN THE BUDGET DEBATE

in the British Constitution no machinery at present exists for any such purpose." The British system "is not a system of direct popular government"; and a general election is "in substance a vote of confidence or of no confidence in one of the great parties and its leaders."

Professor Hobhouse thinks the Lords by their action are "destroying more than they know, in bringing British representative methods to nought." For, if their contention be accepted, it "leads to the consequence that a general election must be held not only every year, but upon every first-class measure, while for second—and third—rate measures it is impossible to see how any provision can be made at all."

There is, of course, one way in which the opposition of the House of Lords to the Budget could be overcome, and that is by the creation of a number of new peers sufficient to secure a ministerial majority. But the assent of the Lords to the present Budget would settle nothing with regard to the constitutional question. The question of legislation would remain untouched. On this point Professor Hobhouse remarks emphatically in the article in the *Contemporary*, from which we have already quoted:

> But the question of legislation cannot remain untouched. After the experience of this Parliament no Liberal government can again take office without reasonable security that they will be able to fulfill their legislative pledge. That is to say, they cannot take office without means of overriding at need the veto of the Lords.

A WOMAN WITH CONVICTIONS

MRS. PANKHURST, the English suffragette leader who recently visited the United States, is characterized by a writer in the *Canadian Magazine* as "an English woman of broad education and vigorous policy. Her present mission is to secure the suffrage for women, and with that end in view she disturbs public meetings, endeavors to address the British House of Commons, and even goes so far as to slap stalwart members of the police force." The Canadian writer doubts whether such tactics are justified by the "wrongs" to which women in Great Britain are said to be subjected. The resort to physical force, according to this writer, is the worst mistake which woman can make. Nor are the English believers in woman suffrage united on this question. "There are many women in Great Britain and Ireland who are extremely desirous of the vote, who are working towards that end, and yet who are opposed strongly to the methods of Mrs. Pankhurst and her followers. A Canadian girl who visited England more than a year ago discovered to her confusion, when she assumed that all woman-suffrage campaigns are of the 'militant' class, that she was making an almost unforgivable blunder."

In order to give Mrs. Pankhurst's own side of the case, a recent contribution by her to the *Daily News*, of London, under the heading, "Why I Am Arrested?" is quoted in part:

MRS. PANKHURST, AS PHOTOGRAPHED ON HER AMERICAN TOUR

> To-day I was arrested at Westminster; to-morrow I shall appear at Rochester Row. Let me explain why. The methods of the National Women's Social and Political Union are based upon the recognition of the fact that governments act only in response to pressure. Men who wish to bring pressure to bear on the government can do so in a constitutional and orderly manner by the exercise of their votes.
>
> Women to whom the vote has been denied are obliged to substitute other methods. After

long years of quiet, patient propaganda, they have now adopted more forceful tactics. These are (1) the questioning of cabinet ministers in public meetings, and demonstrations such as those which have taken place during the last few days; and (2) the policy of opposing the government candidates in by-elections, which has proved so successful, especially in the recent by-elections of Mid-Dover, Hereford, and Worcester.

The question which till three years ago seemed almost dead is now burning. At first the women were ridiculed, their demonstrations were laughed at, and it was said that their work at the by-elections produced absolutely no effect upon the electorate. Now, however, the situation is changed. The press, both Liberal and Conservative, testify to the great impression produced by the women's arguments upon the men electors.

Liberal agents and prominent local Liberals tell those at headquarters how dangerous they are to the prospects of government candidates, and the electors themselves are responding nobly to the women's appeal to stand by them. Even the "raids" on the House of Commons have at last been viewed in the serious light in which they ought to be regarded.

Mr. Muskett, in prosecuting the fifty women who were sentenced yesterday, said that if the powers which the authorities possessed under the Prevention of Crimes Act were not strong enough to restrain the women suffragists, an obsolete act of Charles II. would be put into operation against them. This act provides that "no person shall go to his Majesty or to the House of Parliament accompanied by an excessive number of people at any one time, or with above ten, under a penalty of £100 or three months' imprisonment." The question has therefore been pushed into the forefront of practical politics and public attention, and the women's movement is linked with the great historic movements for securing the liberty of the people, but the women's struggle for liberty is a greater and more honorable one than any that has been known in history, for they have been the first to discover how to carry on a militant campaign without injury either to life or property, and they themselves have been the only ones exposed to sacrifice or danger.

It has been said against them that their campaign has been undignified and unruly, but those women who really have their cause deeply at heart know that it is only undignified to submit to political subjection. We believe there is a point when revolt becomes a duty. Fifty years of patient educational work has produced so little result that the present government came into power not intending to do anything for women's suffrage. This being the case, we have done what men would have done in our place. We have resolved that power shall be won for the helpless, because voteless, women. Our by-election policy, our independent action, our "raids" that have been so often held up to ridicule, are succeeding, and the goal toward which we have been striving is already in sight.

AN AMERICAN SUFFRAGIST ON THE DEFENSIVE

AMERICAN Suffragists are in high feather. Never before have the prospects of success for their movement been so rosy. What may be termed the English crusade in the United States, led by Mrs. Pankhurst, was declared by that lady herself to her friends in London to have been practically a succession of victories. But it is only fair to state that the way was paved for these victories,—on the platform and in the press,—by the carefully planned organization of the National Suffrage Committee, whose headquarters are in New York and whose president is Mrs. Oliver H. P. Belmont. In the November issue of the *North American Review* Mrs. Belmont replies to a writer in the August number of the same journal who had had the temerity to discuss adversely the question, "Shall woman have a voice in her own government?"

Mrs. Belmont is careful to state in her opening sentence that her observations are not addressed to "our living population,—to women beyond the A B C of life." She says to the women who have not joined the movement for woman suffrage:

> Sisters, I ask you to put behind you the fallacies of the past; discard vain dreams; rely upon yourselves; have valiant aims, believing that your rights are the same as those of men. Encourage attainable possibilities. Believe that Motherhood should be no greater than Fatherhood; that the wife should not be the unpaid servant of the husband, but both must be equal. As in man's life the idea of the Father does not predominate, making him subject to it, even so must the idea of Motherhood be in woman's life. . . . Full of courage, with faith in yourself, go forth as an equal in the race. Let the life of the united home be to you as it is to man,—a part but not the whole of existence. Let no obligation, no sacrifice which he does not share be yours. You do not belong to him nor he to you. You are co-workers.

Mrs. Belmont's opponent had claimed that "Anti-Suffragists have ample evidence to prove woman suffrage in the four equal suffrage States a dismal failure." To this she replies: "Let them produce the evidence properly signed and authenticated. They never have done this, they never can do it, because such evidence does not exist." Another charge was, "Women are not fitted for holding office." To this comes the reply: "If this is true, why did the Anti-

Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.
MRS. O. H. P. BELMONT AT SUFFRACE HEADQUARTERS IN NEW YORK

Suffrage Association petition Governor Hughes, of New York, to put women in such official positions as were under his control?" Further, "Wyoming, Colorado, and Idaho have had continuously women State superintendents of public instruction, and the four States have elected many county superintendents, treasurers, recorders, etc. Colorado and Utah have had a number of women legislators. Men are in the majority, —why do they elect women if unfitted?"

Answering the charge that woman suffrage leads to divorce, Mrs. Belmont shows that in the two Dakotas and Oklahoma, where women have only a fragment of school suffrage, divorce is easiest; that Indiana and California, whose women have not a shred of suffrage, lead in the proportion of divorces; but that in Wyoming, Utah, and Idaho, where women have the complete franchise, the proportion of divorces is smallest.

Another statement of the "Antis" refuted is to the effect that

public opinion has approved and sanctioned the demands of women for all the privileges they now enjoy, and that the reason they do not get the suffrage is because all the sixty years' effort has not succeeded in arousing large numbers of women to demand it or public opinion to sanction it.

Mrs. Belmont comes back with the following assertion:

On the contrary, the demand of women for higher education, better laws, and all the rest was infinitesimal compared with the demand they have made and are making for the suffrage. The public sentiment which now favors the enfranchisement of women is so great, contrasted with that which approved those other concessions, that there can hardly be a comparison. . . . From all these lesser gains the suffrage is as far apart as the poles. It means the altering of State constitutions, a fundamental change in the Government itself, whose ultimate results the wisest cannot foretell. No board of trustees, no legislative body can bring it about, but every individual voter in the entire State can pass upon it. In secret he casts his vote and behind it is the prejudice of the ages, the natural disinclination to share one's authority. Opposed to woman suffrage are the powerful liquor interests of the country, the party "machines," the immense moneyed corporations.

It will be gathered that Mrs. Belmont gives a good account of herself.

A MINE TEST OF CIVILIZATION

IT is well said by Dr. Graham Taylor in the *Survey* for December 4 that such a disaster as fell suddenly on the 2000 people of Cherry, Ill., and almost every one of its two hundred homes, tests the efficiency as well as the humanity of our civilization. The St. Paul coal mine, in which a fierce fire raged for nearly a week, is situated on an open prairie at the end of a coal-road spur of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad. The community gathered about the mining plant, which has been in existence only about six years, is composed chiefly of recently arrived immigrants. Apart from the mine itself, with its daily output of 1600 tons of bituminous coal, everything about the place and the people is described by Dr. Taylor as new and crude, transient and undeveloped. "Scarcely any population could have been more unprepared or less resourceful in coping with a disaster which by the panic of certain bereavement or distracting uncertainty suddenly suspended housekeeping in scores of families, deprived children of the care of their dazed or half-crazed mothers, entombed most of the bread-winners, and interrupted all the activities of the town. Even the coal was exhausted in a day or two and a supply had to be hurried from other mines."

The number of men reported in the mine at the time the fire broke out varies from 474 to 527. Of these 124 escaped before the shafts were first sealed to smother the fire. Of the remaining 350 or perhaps 383, only twenty were rescued. To the number of the dead must also be added the ten brave men who lost their lives in the first forlorn hope to reach the bottom of the shaft.

In the work of rescue Dr. Taylor gives full credit to the three young men attached to the rescue service of the United States Geological Survey. These were J. W. Call, a graduate of the University of West Virginia; George S. Rice, a graduate of the College of the City of New York, and R. Y. Williams, a graduate of Princeton University, all of them trained at the Columbia School of Mines.

"Book-miners" the other miners call them, when impatient with their tests of temperature and gas, the deadly "black damp" and the deadlier "white damp." But when they buckled on their oxygen breathing helmets, which were used here for the first time in America, and when they were the first to swing themselves over the brink of the smoking shafts and go down on the temporary float and in the swaying bucket, where no man could breathe who had not the apparatus and training with which science had equipped them, they became the heroes of the second "forlorn hope." Their heroism in making the first descents after the sealing of the mine was the more noteworthy from the fact that although it was against their judgment to make the attempt at the time, yet when the majority of their confrères decided that it ought to be made, these three men were the first to volunteer and to make the hazardous dash to the depths. At this risk of their lives they proved that at less danger to others work could soon be begun without helmets.

The work of the Chicago firemen, who had never been down in a mine before but who fought the smoldering, half-smothered fire which still blocked the way from the shaft to the tunnels on the second level, is also strongly commended.

A dramatic moment came when after the wisest heads and the stoutest hearts had become hopeless during the days while the sealing of the mine smothered the flames, the Government rescuers reported the discovery of living men, who, under the lead of experienced Scotch miners, had walled themselves in from fire and gas.

Then came the terrible alternations of joy and sorrow, hope and despair, as the cage went down with relays of rescuers and came up with its grewsome burden of the dead or the nearly starved and smothered survivors who had been entombed a whole week. The fact that more bodies were not found and that over a score of living men were brought to the surface only increased the strain of suspense and the heart-rending conflict between hope and despair. For what woman could save herself from the distracting question, Is my "man" coming up next time, or is he "down" among the dead at the bottom? But when the almost unrecognizable bodies were brought up, one by one, and laid in a row in the open field, the iron entered the very soul, as all who had not yet recovered their lost ones were compelled to file by to try to identify their own.

In conclusion, Dr. Taylor declares that the supreme test by which the Illinois Legislature, as well as all the people of Illinois and other States, will be judged, is the intelligence and justice of their laws for the protection of life from preventable risks, and not less for the legal compensation of those who suffer from unavoidable casualties.

Public sentiment, long since abroad and more and more at home, insists upon charging up to every industry the human as well as the material cost of its own product. The police power of the State is being exercised in legally compelling each industry to assume all its own

THE CHERRY MINE DISASTER—FRIENDS AND RELATIVES OF THE ENTOMBED MINERS WAITING FOR NEWS AT THE MINE ENTRANCE

risks and pay its own costs. It is a humiliating fact that in America more than in any other industrial country labor has been left longest without the adequate protection of laws for the prevention of accidents and of occupational disease, and employers always have been exposed to being mulcted for liability to damages under the common law, while speculative lawyers and casualty insurance companies have been allowed to share the profit and loss involved in the damages nominally awarded the injured or the heirs of the dead.

HOW ISLAM TEACHES ITS YOUNG

CONTINUING his interesting series of papers in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the schools of the Orient, M. Louis Bertrand gives an account of the scholastic institutions of the Mussulmans. He explains that it would be fairer, perhaps, to call them national schools, since, like those of the Christians and Israelites, they are open to Ottoman or Egyptian scholars of any confession; but he prefers, for the sake of clarity, to retain the designation Mussulman, because they are directed by Mussulmans, and religious instruction forms the principal feature of the curriculum. It should be premised that M. Bertrand's observations relate not to the universities and strictly Islamic schools, which perpetuate, even at this late date, the archaic methods of Arab pedagogy, but to " the modest popular schools, in which the teaching staff is almost always clerical, and instruction is given to the children of each district in the rudiments of reading and writing." It should be added, however, that it is, if one may call it so, lay instruction, modeled more or less on Western methods, that, during the past half century, the Egyptians and the Turks have endeavored to acclimatize among them.

It appears that the educational system actually in operation in Egypt is inspired rather by Continental than by Anglo-Saxon methods.

It comprises primary and secondary schools,—the lycées or gymnasia,—in which the complete course of study extends over eight years: four for primary and four for secondary studies. Besides these there are superior schools, which

take the place of the university; schools of law, medicine and pharmacy, civil engineering, and normal schools. Progression from one school to another is dependent upon the results of quarterly and annual examinations; and at the close of the first four years successful students at the general examinations receive a certificate of primary studies which entitles them to enter the secondary schools. In these schools also general examinations are held at the close of the second year, on passing which the scholars enter upon their third year, specializing in letters or science, as the case may be; and at the end of the fourth year certificates of secondary studies are awarded to successful students, without which admission to the superior schools cannot be obtained. Special schools devoted to agriculture, veterinary surgery, and the training of teachers, admit pupils on presentation of the primary certificate. This organization, it will be seen, rests largely upon the French and European systems; and as regards hygiene, games, and physical exercises, Egyptian pedagogy has borrowed extensively from Anglo-Saxon methods.

The great difference between the Mussulman and Western programs is the entire exclusion from the former of Latin and Greek. These two dead languages are replaced by literary Arabic. But this also is a dead language; and the students as a rule care so little for its study that, were it optional, it would in a very short time be abandoned. At present in Egypt foreign languages form the solid base of literary instruction,—English and French.

Two prominent features of this pedagogic system are to be noted,—each pupil pays for his education, and diplomas are granted only as the result of public examinations.

M. Bertrand describes a visit made by him to a private school founded by Mustafa Kamel at Cairo in 1889:

> The pupils were the children of shopkeepers and artisans, and they had a very easy manner. Save for the tarboosh I might have thought I was inspecting one of the schools of our own towns. As we entered the infant class the pupils were reciting the Koran. In the middle section an Egyptian professor was giving a lesson in English. A lesson in geography followed, the scholars being asked to indicate on the map towns, rivers, mountains, etc. They acquitted themselves creditably. As I was examining intently the features of some of the pupils a suspicion crossed my mind. "Are these little Mussulmans?" I inquired. "No! this one is a Copt." "And the other?" "He is an Israelite."
>
> Doubtless both of these children were Egyptians also. Still, in this Mussulman school I should have preferred to hear other brilliant pupils than Christians and Jews.

In Turkey an analogous system of public education has long been introduced. Here also there is a modern system of instruction regularly organized,—primary and secondary schools, superior schools, special military schools, and schools of arts and handicrafts. But the greater number of these drag out such a feeble existence that, as far as their influence is concerned, they might not exist at all. It is the Turks themselves who say this. We are forced to believe them, says M. Bertrand; for the schools are closed to us as tightly as certain mosques.

> At Constantinople, in consequence, I had contented myself with admiring the façade of the school of military medicine. Here, in Syria, far from the center of the empire, in a province where administrative rigors are somewhat relaxed, it will be easy, I thought, for me to enter an Ottoman school. It proved an illusion! At Beirut all I saw of the college was the walls. . . . At Jerusalem I was informed *sub rosa* of the existence of a normal school for girls; but it was evident that I had as little chance to enter it as a harem; and I concluded that it was not worth the trouble to ascertain where it was to be found.

After having given up all hope of being able to visit a school in the Holy City, M. Bertrand was gratified by the unlooked-for opportunity of inspecting a secondary institution, the director of which was a Mussulman of Cypriote origin, more cultivated, more open, and more liberal than the average of Turkish functionaries. The pupils were not particularly well-behaved. One of them recited some Turkish verses; another, a fable of La Fontaine's. The visitor exchanged with difficulty two or three French phrases with certain scholars selected by the teacher. A few days later M. Bertrand visited a school founded and maintained by a mullah,—a religious Mussulman,—who had been won over to the cause of European culture.

In spite of these efforts, individual or collective, notwithstanding the declarations of a love for knowledge with which the reformist press greets one both in Egypt and in Turkey, M. Bertrand cannot convince himself that Mussulmans, taken in the mass, have any strong or resolute desire for instruction on European lines. In reality the people "are in accord with the Mussulman clergy in resisting the invasion of European ideas." The problem of Mussulman education would be singularly simplified if Egypt and Turkey were countries somewhat more homogeneous, as the countries of Europe. Unfortunately ethnic unity does not exist in the Orient.

The New Egyptian University

THE NEW UNIVERSITY OF EGYPT, RECENTLY OPENED IN CAIRO UNDER NATIVE MANAGEMENT

One of the youngest born educational institutions of the East is the Egyptian University of Cairo. It was formally opened little more than a year ago, and already the number of students has doubled. Its founder,—of whom further mention follows below,—imbued with the idea of "Egypt's civil and political regeneration, evolved a plan for an establishment devoted to higher culture, where the splendid records of the past should be called out from ages of silence, where the ancestral histories should be revived from the old classics, and this in the original tongue, but where, at the same time, the spirit and the development of other races should be studied through the medium of the new languages."

From an Egyptian point of view, French or German as spoken and written to-day might naturally enough be looked upon as an upstart language. The ancient Moslem ideals and traditions are, however, being perpetuated to the exclusion of modern thought and methods, both in spirit and in form, at another Cairo seat of learning, the mosk and university of El Azhar, said to have first opened its doors a thousand years ago. The existence of the new academical house seems due to the initiative of His Khedivial Highness Ahmed Fuad Pasha, a member of the reigning family, or, to be quite exact, the vice-reigning family, since Egypt is officially a Turkish dependency. Fuad Pasha, so one learns from the Roman *Nuova Antologia,* is not only the founder of the Egyptian University of Cairo but its "effective President," a number of wealthy and munificent Egyptians having subscribed to its endowment.

The English administrative element in Egypt regard this educational movement, with its nationalistic tendencies, as not only dangerous but seditious. The courses were at first given in different languages, some in English, others in French, and others yet in Arabic. But it has been determined by Prince Fuad that "whereas it is desirable to free the young students of Egypt from the yoke of foreign speech, in the acquisition of higher culture, all instruction will eventually be given in Arabic only,"—cheerless news for believers in the maxim *Egypt for the English.* Meanwhile, ambitious youths are preparing themselves at European institutions to teach their countrymen whatever that newer world has to offer, one of them, for instance, at the late Professor Lombroso's Turin school of criminal anthropology. Admission to this Eastern university is by no means restricted to Mussulmans, but is granted "to every one asking regular enrollment as student or auditor, of whatever nationality or whatever faith and creed." To show that no want of liberality attaches to Prince Fuad's conception, the author of the article moreover tells us that there are opportunities for female students at this university. He adds, however, that the Egyptian women are not taking to the notion of thus abandoning the langorous life of their scented harems.

In the article in the *Nuova Antologia* to which we have already referred,—and which is published anonymously,—there is also given a summary of the hopes and expectations of the projectors of this new university. "Young Egypt," according to the writer, has ambitions with which even the new Orient is unfamiliar. For, to quote the words of Ismail Pasha in characterizing Egypt to a French diplomat: "My country is no longer in Africa; we have become part of Europe."

THE TURKEY: AMERICA'S NATIONAL BIRD

SO much has been said and written about the eagle in connection with matters political in the United States; it has become such a familiar figure in so many of our newspaper cartoons; we are apt to attach so great a potency to its mere scream as a terror to evil-doers in international affairs; and its adoption as a national emblem has seemed to indicate so exclusive a right in the bird, that the majority of persons, if asked to name the principal indigenous bird of this country, would unhesitatingly reply, "The American eagle." But they would be wrong. As a writer in the *Bulletin* of the International Union of the American Republics points out:

The far-famed eagle represents its species as simply a first cousin in the Western Hemisphere, but the aguila family has occupied the whole earth from time immemorial. The eagle was indicative of the advances of the Roman Empire. It was known in China for ages. To-day it graces the standards of Russia, of Germany, and of several other great world-powers.

The one truly American bird is our friend the turkey. It is indigenous to America.

Among the aboriginal inhabitants it was a favorite fowl; wherever their corn or maize was grown the turkey also grew and thrived; like corn, the turkey was discovered by the earliest European adventurers and settlers, and by them sent home as trophies of the chase. Since then the turkey, following Indian corn, which it dearly loves as food, has been carried to all the corners of the earth, to embellish the farm, and to add another factor to the many contributed for man's enjoyment by America.

THE TURKEY IN PICTURE WRITING OF THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS

(Whatever means the aboriginal inhabitants of North America adopted to record information was by rude inscriptions on wood or stone. This curious presentation of a turkey was meant to convey the idea that the bird was abundant in that particular neighborhood. It is a rare specimen of native character writing, preserved in the Bureau of Ethnology of the National Museum)

A FINE SPECIMEN OF THE CHRISTMAS BIRD

When Coronado explored the region west of the Mississippi, he and his companions were especially attracted to the large numbers of turkeys that they saw in the Indian villages. Many of them were domesticated; but large flocks were in the wild state. Even earlier than this, Cortes and his followers in Mexico had found turkeys more common than any other kind of poultry. That the Aztecs knew the bird is shown by the very name of it in Mexican, *huajolote*. Indeed, in certain parts of the country it was worshiped. In the Bureau of American Ethnology at Washington there is a rare specimen resident in that particular neighborhood. The Zuñi Indians, who knew the bird from their earliest history, have the following curious legend about the turkey, which links the New World with the Old-World account of the Deluge:

The world was at one time covered by a terrible flood of water. The turkey became weary of constant flying and decided, against the advice of companions and even of the gods, to land wherever opportunity offered. The bird settled in the mud, and when he tried to rise again the feathers could be released only by a mighty pull. Some of the mud stuck to the feathers, making a spot on them, and this mark has ever since remained as a sign of the turkey's disobedience both of common sense and divine command.

There seems to be little doubt that the wild turkey of America is the progenitor of turkeys the world over; but some scientists

A FLOCK OF "BARNYARD" TURKEYS

favor the view that our domestic bird is descended from a variety indigenous to the West Indies. It is, however, generally agreed that all turkeys have descended "in some way or other from the three kinds known to-day as the North American, the Mexican, and the Honduras or Ocellated varieties." For the benefit of those of our readers who are familiar with the bird only when it is "smoking on the board," as the poet Gay says, we append the following brief description of the three kinds:

The colors of the North American turkey are black, beautifully shaded with a rich bronze, the breast plumage being dark bronze, illuminated with a lustrous finish of coppery gold. . . . The full-grown, healthy bird is a beautiful picture of bronze, black, copper and gold. The Mexican turkey, wild throughout that republic, is short in shank, the feathers of its body are metallic black, shaded only slightly with bronze, while all its feathers are tipped with white. . . . It is thought that the white markings of its plumage appear in the variety known as the Narragansett domestic turkey. The Honduras turkey is scattered well over most of Central America. . . . It is extremely wild, and its coloring is the most beautiful of all the family. The head and neck are naked, and no breast tuft is present. The ground color of the plumage is a beautiful bronze-green, banded with gold-bronze, blue, and red, with some bands of brilliant black. The name "Ocellated" is given to it on account of the large spots on the longer feathers, giving them a fanciful resemblance to eyes.

In the United States there are raised six standard varieties,—the Bronze, Narragansett, Buff, Slate, White, and Black. The chief differences are in size and color of plumage.

Turkeys were carried to the Old World by the earlier discoverers as "trophies of the New World." Cortes took specimens to Spain in 1520: to-day, in Madrid, turkeys are offered for sale in the very square in which were held the *autos de fe* of the Inquisition. In England the bird was introduced in 1524. These descendants of the parent stock were carried back again to New England, where they were crossed with the original turkey and began the breed that has spread from one end of the country to the other. The fowl was long in reaching France; for the first mention of it in history is in connection with the wedding of Charles IX. and Elizabeth of Austria (June 27, 1570).

As to the distribution of the turkey in the United States, we are informed that Texas headed the list of States producing the fowl at the date of the census of 1900. Then came Missouri, Illinois, Iowa, Ohio, and Indiana. Rhode Island is noted for the excellence of the breed and the study given to the fowl, both as a scientific and commercial object. Although turkey raising is not a simple matter, the bird requiring more space than is found in a small farm, yet satisfactory profit is the general reward if proper attention is given to the business; and it is as simple to raise turkeys of superior quality as it is to raise those of inferior quality.

Contrary to the general opinion on the subject, it appears from the *Bulletin* that there is really a scarcity of turkeys compared with the population of the United States. It is estimated that there are about 9,000,000 turkeys in this country,—less than one bird for every nine persons. This,—reckoning the standard weight of a bird at 12 to 36 pounds, of which only one-half is available

as food,—the *Bulletin* considers is "scarcely enough turkey meat to go around." It adds: "Until the growers provide the country more bountifully some one must soon do without this luxury for the great national holidays of Thanksgiving and Christmas."

THE PRESENT STATUS OF RAILWAY ENTERPRISE IN CHINA

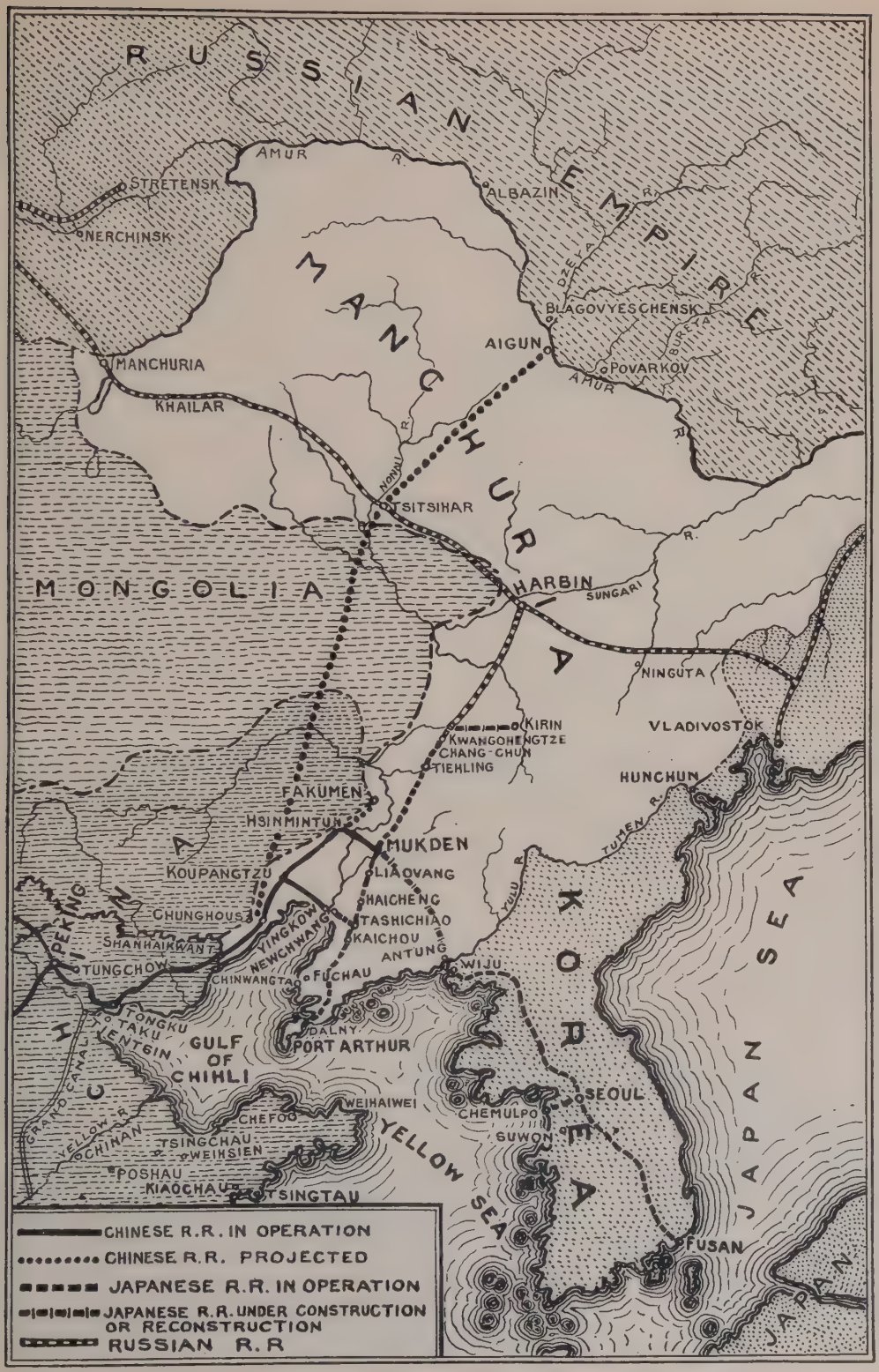
THE participation of the United States in the loan for the Hankow-Canton and Hankow-Szechuen railways has awakened in this country much interest in railway enterprise in the new China. It therefore seems opportune to note the existing status of Chinese railways as described by one who is exceptionally well qualified to deal with the subject. Mr. K. Haraguchi, who contributes to a recent issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio) an article on the railways in China, has for several years been an engineering adviser to the late Grand Councillor Chang Chih-tung and superintended the construction of several railways in Hunan and Hupeh while the now deceased Chinese statesman was viceroy of those two provinces. Naturally, Mr. Haraguchi is thoroughly conversant with the present condition of railway enterprise in China.

As is well known, the genesis of Chinese railways dates back to 1876, when several enterprising Britishers constructed a line connecting Shanghai with the Woosung anchorage. But the undertaking was much ahead of its time, and the popular superstition of *Fungshui* was so strong that the line was demolished shortly afterwards, its materials being conveyed to Formosa, where they were dumped on the beach and there allowed to remain until stolen or rendered useless by continued neglect. Mr. Haraguchi thinks that in this particular case this superstitious doctrine did China good rather than harm, for had the Woosung road, with a narrow gauge of only 2 feet 6 inches, been allowed to remain unmolested more lines would, in his opinion, have been built after the same model until it would have become difficult to convert them into the standard gauge, which was absolutely necessary if the Chinese railway system was to become commercially important. When in 1881 the Chinese Government at the suggestion of the British engineer, Mr. C. W. Kinder, decided to build a line between the coal mines at Tongshan and Tientsin, it adopted a standard gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches.

With these preliminary remarks Mr. Haraguchi enters into an enumeration of the Chinese railways already constructed and under operation, giving their respective capitalizations (the Japanese yen equaling approximately half a dollar) and actual conditions of traffic:

(1) The Peking-Mukden railway has a length of 600 miles. Its capital is estimated at about 48,600,000 yen, half of which was borrowed from England. This line yielded a net profit of 4,000,000 yen last year. (2) The Peking-Hankow railway, totaling 754 miles, has a capital of 78,150,000 yen, most of which was supplied by a British-French syndicate. Its net profit for the past year amounted to some 5,730,000 yen. (3) The Taokou-Tzechoufu railway is a branch of the Peking-Hankow system, and has a mileage of 94. Its capital is 8,730,000 yen, most of which is of British origin. The traffic report for this line for the past year shows a deficit of 300,000 yen. (4) The Pingsiang-Chuchow railway is 64 miles long, and was built with a capital of 4,170,000 yen. The net profit of this line last year was 119,000 yen. (5) The Kaifeng branch of the Peking-Hankow railway is 115 miles in length. Its capital is 19,410,000 yen, most of which is of Belgian origin. This line is not yet upon a paying basis. (6) The Chenting-Taiyuanfu railway, with a length of 151 miles, is another branch of the Peking-Hankow system. Its capital, mostly Russian, is estimated at 21,970,000 yen. (7) The Shanghai-Nanking railway, which is 205 miles long, was built with a capital of 43,090,000 yen, most of which was furnished by British capitalists. This line, though not yet upon a paying basis, promises soon to become one of the most important in Southern China. (8) The Peking-Kalgan road, just opened to traffic, marks a new era in the history of Chinese railways, for it was built by Chinese engineers with Chinese capital. It is 125 miles long.

Adding to the above lines the already constructed portions of the Shanghai-Ningpo and Hankow-Canton railways, aggregating some 125 miles, and the 500 miles of the German railway in Shantung, the Chinese railways of to-day total some 2500 miles, which is not more than half the mileage of those of Japan. In Mr. Haraguchi's estimate, outlays on Chinese railways are invariably too heavy. This is perhaps due to the undesirable practices generally prevailing among the native officials entrusted with the construction of these lines.



THE RAILROADS OF MANCHURIA, EXISTING AND IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION

THE GYROSCOPIC MONORAILROAD

IN THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS for August, 1908, there appeared a description of several applications of the gyroscopic principle, including the Brennan monorail. The recent exhibition of Mr. Brennan's invention before the Royal Society of England has confirmed in almost every particular the remarkable promises made on the occasion of the first exhibition, held under the same auspices in 1907. At that time Mr. Brennan exhibited a small car, which traveled on a single rail or cableway and kept its equilibrium perfectly even while rounding curves and when its load was shifted from one side to the other. This equilibrium was preserved by means of a pair of wheels that were rotated at high speed in opposite directions. Just as a top is kept from falling while spinning at high speed, these rotating wheels prevented the car from toppling over. It was nothing more nor less than the principle of the gyroscope, long understood by physicists, but not yet a matter of popular knowledge. Experts freely predicted a revolution in railroad practice.

In the *Scientific American* for November 27, 1909, it is stated that since the first exhibition of his gyroscopic car Mr. Brennan has been at work developing details which would permit of using the same principle on a much larger car suitable for carrying heavy loads. The car exhibited in November last before the Royal Society was fourteen feet long, thirteen feet high, and ten feet wide. It weighed twenty-two tons. Carrying a load of forty passengers, the car traveled on a single rail around a circular track 220 yards in circumference. The balance was perfectly kept by means of two gyroscopes, weighing three-quarters of a ton each and revolving at a speed of 3000 revolutions per minte. The wheels were incased and ran in a vacuum so as to reduce friction to a minimum. A gasolene engine was used, to keep the gyroscope spinning and also to propel the car. Attempts were made to destroy the equilibrium by shifting the passengers suddenly from one side to the other, but the gyroscope wheels when subjected to this severe test restored the balance at once. The precessional action that always accompanies the gyroscopic motion was overcome by means of friction devices.

The advantage of using a monorail is that the cost of construction is considerably less; but in addition to this there is the fact that

THE BRENNAN MONORAIL CAR USED FOR RECENT EXPERIMENTS IN ENGLAND

a slight deviation from a true line would result in no damage, whereas when two parallel tracks are used they must both be kept perfectly parallel and in perfect alignment. Otherwise the car will run off the track or will rock violently if one side dips below the other. Thus a double-rail track is more difficult to keep in repair than two monorails, for the reason that the two rails are interdependent and variation in one must not take place without a corresponding variation in the other. In rounding curves there is always danger of spreading the tracks where a double-rail track is used, while with a monorail line should the side thrust be sufficient to shift the rail there would be no tendency on the part of the car wheels to leave the track.

THE MODERN "CLAMOR OF NATIONALITIES"

DESPITE the undisputed growth of imperialism and the constant accretion of vast empires, there are not wanting signs (says Albert Wirth, writing in the *Neue Rundschau*) that this is pre-eminently the day of nationalism. Herr Wirth, who is a well-known German journalist and traveler, has recently returned from an extended journey throughout the civilized world. He is firmly convinced that the smaller nationalities of the earth are more in evidence to-day than ever before. Here is some of his testimony:

In 1905 the Russian Poles awoke and gained self-consciousness, but at the same time the Lithuanians also awoke. All at once the Lithuanians possessed a number of newspapers and an abundance of national leagues. They already demand the use of the Lithuanian language in the church. The Poles are against it, but the Russians, who at an earlier time oppressed both Lithuanians and Poles, now aid the weaker party, the Lithuanians. *Divide et impera.* . . . Further down in the south Great Russians, Ruthenians, and Poles fight one another, and all of them together are against the Jew and the German.

Such dissensions, however, exist, the German writer continues, because they are not the result of sophistic diplomats; they are an elemental phenomenon.

A phenomenon of that nature may, of course, be diplomatically utilized or ignored. It is a phenomenon that may be observed in Protestant South Africa and in Catholic Brazil, in the Christian world as well as in the Buddhistic and Mohammedan world; in short, in all parts of the globe. Australia is prejudiced against the yellow race and the Hawaiian Kanakas and has excluded Dalmatian vineyard laborers. She received the North American fleet with the greatest enthusiasm, as an aid against the dangerous Japanese and their immigration. She sees with the greatest displeasure that some of her white subjects already serve under Chinese employers. Between the Boers and the Englishmen the dissension disappeared with astonishing rapidity because both are threatened by the "black peril." In South America there is going on a struggle between indigenous whites and white immigrants. Then there exists a rupture also between white and colored people, more pronounced in the northern part. There is finally a war on between education and barbarism, between the civilization of the cultivated plain and the wildness of the jungle, marsh, and mountain. Language is of lesser influence here than elsewhere. The Luso-Brazilian is hardly less prejudiced against the Portuguese than against the Italians and Germans; the inhabitant of Chile despises Spaniards, Swiss, and Frenchmen in an equal manner. With the Indians the indigenous people are mostly not on bad terms, since President Juarez of Mexico was a full blooded Indian, and in the veins of many noble people of Chile flow the blood of Araucanos; the Gauchos of the Argentine Republic are half-Indian.

In the United States, Herr Wirth contends, the conflict of nationalities is a characteristic of the State.

It is observed recently that nationalism in the United States is on the increase. Germans, Irishmen, negroes, have all become more conscious of their individualities than at any previous time. To a great extent that is a consequence of the new colonial and imperialistic policy; at the same time a consequence of the natural alienation from England. I have observed that in mixed marriages, where the wife is a Spaniard, the children learn Spanish better or exclusively. I have met Irishmen and negroes who spoke German fluently, having grown up in Pennsylvania. In Canada the French cannot be destroyed, as their number, two millions and a quarter, is not exceeded by that of the English. Consequently the French feel very comfortable, especially as even their Premier, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, came from their midst. They have not the least desire to join the Union, for they would be crushed, while now their privileges are respected; that is the innermost reason of their loyalty. Otherwise they have no liking for the English, especially as they are extremely eager Catholics.

In France, three-quarters of a million Bretons and some hundred thousand Basques and Corsicans stand aloof from the general body.

In Spain, Catalonians and Castilians are sepa-

rated by a deep gulf. In Belgium, Walloons and Flemish struggle against each other. In Germany there are even three kinds of national enemies: The Frenchmen of Lorraine, the Danes and the Poles, besides some minor ones, —Mazurs and Lithuanians. In Austria, Russia, and Turkey the struggle of nationalities is an everyday phenomenon, but even Scandinavia, peaceable as she is, has gone through similar experiences. Northern Europe, with its thin population, has preserved three or even four (Iceland) national types.

In Persia, Kurds, Armenians, Arabs, inhabitants of Beluchistan and Tatars of Aderbeijan; in India, Siam, China, Siberia,—everywhere there is extreme disruption. Japan has a hard nut to crack in Formosa, being in a minority (1 to 60) against the Chinese and the Chinaized folk. Korea only has experienced no inner disruption and also no Irredentism, although she is filled with great indignation against the Japanese invasion. I am inclined to think that the granite-like, strong peculiarity of the Koreans will gain the victory.

LITERARY MEN AND THEIR WIVES

DO men of genius make good husbands? In an article in the *Nineteenth Century and After* Mr. Sidney Low answers this question with a decided "No!" He suggests various reasons why they do not as a matter of fact and why they ought not in the interest of the race itself. First, as to the matter of fact, is it not true that the great writer either does not marry, or, if he does marry, the union turns out badly?

In order to prove his case Mr. Low takes a list of sixty-eight distinguished writers of the English language. Of these twenty-five never married at all; of the remaining forty-three, twenty were fairly satisfactory and twenty-three were unfortunate and sometimes disastrous. He finds the same result follow from the examination of the lives of distinguished women of letters.

The following is an analysis of his list. Unhappy marriages: Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Pepys, Swift, Addison, Sterne, Boswell, Burns, Coleridge, Shelley, Byron, Hazlitt, Lytton, Carlyle, Ruskin, Landor, Dickens, Thackeray, Rossetti, Fitzgerald. Note that Mr. Low includes among the unhappy marriages those in which the husbands, like Boswell and Burns, were unfaithful to their wives. The wives of Shelley and Rossetti committed suicide. The wives of Southey and Thackeray became insane.

The happily married in the list are as follows: Bunyan, Defoe, Steele, Fielding, Smollett, Johnson, Sheridan, Crabbe, Wordsworth, Scott, Leigh Hunt, Moore, De Quincey, Darwin, Froude, Matthew Arnold, Kingsley, Tennyson, Browning, and William Morris. It is difficult to understand on what principle Mr. Low divides the sheep from the goats.

Scott is said to have married "not quite sympathetically," Leigh Hunt married "not quite happily." Sheridan, who was certainly not a model of fidelity, is said to have "married not unhappily." Mr. Low suggests that Johnson's marriage was unfortunate because his friends and contemporaries regarded it as grotesque. But, surely, what the neighbors say is no test of the success or failure of a marriage. Johnson himself was more than satisfied with his wife.

The following is Mr. Low's list of men of letters who did not marry: Hobbes, Newton, Locke, Congreve, Otway, Pope, Prior, Richardson, James Thomson, Gray, Hume, Adam Smith, Goldsmith, Gibbon, Cowper, Bentham, Keats, Charles Lamb, Macaulay, Newman, John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, Charles Reade, James Thomson (B.V.), and Walter Pater. The list, whatever criticism may be passed upon it, is very interesting and suggestive.

Mr. Low raises the question whether failure in matrimony is the penalty of eminence generally or merely of literary eminence; and then proceeds to discuss the question as to the causes of the comparative failure of the marriages of men of letters. He puts forward, with some plausibility, the theory of a friend of his, that this failure is simply due to the fact that they see too much of each other. A literary man lives in the house all day, and, therefore, he and his wife see too much of each other. If Mr. Carlyle had been compelled to attend at an office from ten to four o'clock daily Mrs. Carlyle might have been a happier woman. People who are always together get on each other's nerves in time; a good deal of voluntary short separation is the best prescription for avoiding a judicial separation and divorce.

Mr. Low finds consolation in thinking that the domestic unhappiness in genius may be a device of Nature to guard against the premature production of a race of "supermen."

CURING DISEASE BY COLOR AND MUSIC

THERE have been published recently, in *La Revue* (Paris), a number of articles dealing with the effect upon the nervous system of the various colors and the different musical tones. The author mentions some of the accepted facts relating to the soothing effect upon nervous individuals of some colors and of some music, and gives it as his opinion that the scientist and the educator of the future, by means of apparatus comparatively easy of invention, will prescribe methods of treatment and courses of study for such persons far in advance of those of the present day.

Red, for example, says this writer, is an excitant. Orange and yellow, however, excite in a much less degree. Violet, indigo, and blue are of calming effect. Green is said to convey tranquil joy,—a sense of peace. Chromotherapy is a science based on the effect of colored light on the human body. To summarize the article in question:

In neurasthenia, or nervous prostration, the effects of the colored light treatment are especially encouraging when the light is applied progressively and without abrupt change, and when the patient under treatment is placed under the rays of colored light during a given time. In all cases the light must be of the color favorable to counteraction of the disease to be treated, and as an excess of light augments neurasthenia care must be taken to control the force of the rays. The most notable experiments have been made in the tropics. Deschamps, the close French student and scientist, states that the first effect of an increase of light is to augment the activity of the subject, but that the nervous system is affected almost at once. Victims of obesity are the first to prove the bad effects of an excess of light. Blondes are more affected by light and color than brunettes. Neurasthenics ought to avoid bright colored light in their living rooms. Curtains and wall hangings should be of calming or otherwise favorable colors. Sufferers from nervous trouble of any kind should be careful not to pass much time in a room papered or draped with red. They should paper and curtain their rooms with green, blue, and violet,—colors known to be of calming effect. Deschamps declares that experiments have proved that fits of impatience or of melancholia may be singularly moderated, if not wholly corrected, by accommodating the wall paper and hangings of the living rooms of sufferers from nervous disorders to the temperaments of the subjects.

The effects of music upon the human being are known to be as decided as the effects of color. Schopenhauer, as well as Herbert Spencer, searched in vain for an explanation of the effects of music on the physical emotions. We quote from the *Revue* here:

It is undeniable that there are many more who are moved by the influence of music than who are sensible to the beauty of color, or than are capable of telling the difference in shades of color. And yet the effect of color is more generally shown on the nerves of nervous people than the effect of music. Why is this so? Among the visitors to museums few are stirred to real feeling by a picture. Yet the same colors seen in the picture may have a direct physical influence on the one who is apparently least moved by the picture containing them. But old and young alike are thrilled by the passing trumpet or the drum.

Music, like color, will perhaps be a medical means of curing sickness.

The brain receives the sound of music and the nervous system gets immediate relief from the perpetual noise, or combination of noises, which incessantly besieges it in Nature, and the sensation or impression of relief becomes sentiment or feeling. The master work of music is to relieve the mind bowed down by the weight of an atmosphere saturated with noise; and in this, the day of an excess of noise, science plans music among the recognized curative agents and calls it *musicotherapy,* as it calls color, the other powerful natural agent, *chromotherapy.*

A practical application of the theories covering sight and hearing,—or the effects of color and music,—have been made in the recent experiments of the Dutch savant Van Biervliet, who believes that the most complex mental operations may be traced to methods of reasoning whose results depen upon the good action and the delicacy of the nervous system. He holds that sight (the sense signally affected by colors) and hearing (the sense signally affected by music) are the senses furnishing most nourishment to the intellectual faculties. Experiments made simultaneously upon a dozen people chosen haphazard from a public audience showed that the most intelligent, generally speaking, were the people who made best use of their eyes and ears.

Professor Van Biervliet concludes that the science of psychometry,—or intellectual measurement or estimate,—may be based on the measure or appreciation of sight combined with the measure or appreciation of hearing; and that an apparatus covering at the same time data registered by the sight and data registered by the hearing may give means sufficient to obtain an exact estimate of the degree of intelligence of the subject under observation. Dr. Louis Martin, of the Pasteur Institute of Paris, admits that in the case of the backward mental development of individuals who have acquired consciousness of their intellectual faculties at an age relatively advanced, the results of the visual and the auditory experiments may be of great use.

THE FOOD PROBLEM IN PAST CENTURIES

IN the second of a series of articles that Viscount Georges d'Avanel is now contributing to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the evolution of private expenditures for seven centuries, the question of nourishment is thoroughly discussed from as many points of view as the author's acquaintance with reliable sources of information can advance. This particular article appears in the issue of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of November 15, 1909.

In the first part of this study the author shows very forcibly that in times past the French people did not eat as much or, with a few exceptions, as well as to-day. He says that while the great appetite of the ancient Gaulois so well illustrated in Rabelais' works is largely a matter of legendary interest, their culinary hospitality reached a height quite unknown to the moderns. The great Condé, for example, to keep an open house worthy of his rank, actually bought food to the amount of four hundred thousand dollars.

But especially interesting is that part of the article in which the author deals at length with the evolution of the cost of living in general and the price of food products in particular.

We know, for instance, that as much as thirty dollars was paid for a turkey until this bird was imported from America. As for butter, a writer of the sixteenth century states that "Frenchmen used butter at their meals only in May"; in Winter butter could not be had everywhere, and one dollar and a half a pound was not an unusual price paid for it in the cold season. Potatoes were raised in Ireland, England, and Russia long before they penetrated into France. It was thought that they were poisonous, and the law in condemning this vegetable held that it could cause leprosy. Potatoes were finally used during the reign of Louis XVI., but only to feed animals, and it was only in 1786 that Frenchmen began to think seriously about using potatoes in order to avoid the calamities of a possible famine. Rice was a rare thing throughout the Middle Ages and the average price paid for it was twenty-five cents a pound. Only fifty years ago the price of strawberries was so high that only the rich could have them, and in the fourteenth century no one else but princes could indulge in such things as a pomegranate or an orange, for which as much as a dollar apiece was paid regularly.

As regards wine, the author states that the average Frenchman of to-day can at a smaller price have much better wine than the wealthy Frenchman of the fifteenth or sixteenth century, and this is made possible by the fact that wine is nowadays kept largely in bottles, while in the past only casks were used. Even at the table of Louis XV. wine was rarely served in bottles. The writer goes on to say that several beverages have gradually disappeared and that even water has changed, since every city is now practically supplied with spring water. And in this connection he remarks that Parisians themselves about a hundred years ago were compelled to drink the often muddy water of the Seine, carried from house to house by over two thousand carriers. Yet, the author wisely adds, however bad such water was at two pennies a bucket, it was nevertheless quite less injurious to the health than is brandy to-day at two pennies the little glass. And here a statement is made to the effect that Paris is not, as it is commonly believed, in the front rank as regards the use of alcoholic drinks; in this respect the average consumption of the provinces is much larger. As a general rule excessive use of alcohol is almost wholly confined to the lower classes.

The use of cocoa, which was imported by the Spaniards from Mexico in 1520, was even more vigorously opposed than the use of tea itself in France. Cardinal Richelieu, for instance, in a letter to his brother Alphonse, says: "I cannot conceal from you my apprehension that the drug called chocolate, which you are using freely, may be harmful to your health, and I think that it would be better for you to have recourse to ordinary remedies." Physicians went so far as to say that chocolate could cause a continuous and mortal fever. It may be of interest to know that in the seventeenth century chocolate cost nearly $2.50 a pound.

In conclusion the writer says that in order to provide the Frenchman of to-day with the good things he now enjoys, agriculture and industry had to be revolutionized, soil fertilizers discovered, the various species of plants and seeds acclimatized, and an immense number of mechanical devices invented. . . . In spite of all these changes and in spite of so much effort to-

ward better conditions, our present society is seemingly unconcerned with accomplished results, as was the case with our ancestors, for whom the food question was always of the most vital importance.

Which proves after all that men are indifferent to material progress as an end in itself, but highly interested in the progress of ideas. Even the masses take more pleasure in dreaming over some social change that, from the practical point of view, would not result in any material advantage, while the actual gains of society leave them indifferent. Effort is therefore far more worthy than results because effort is thought and results are matter.

WHY NOT EDUCATION ON THE SEX QUESTION?

IT has always been the popular belief and practice that children should be brought up without being taught specifically how they came into existence. It has been generally held that the functions of generation, the processes of maternity, and all facts pertaining to the sexual side of human life ought to be kept out of the juvenile mental purview. Parents and pedagogues alike have been accustomed to attempt excluding this whole subject from youthful knowledge, leaving their offspring, or pupils, to acquire information concerning it as best they might.

From the desirability of that system only a few people dissent. One of them, Pio Foà, a member of Italy's Upper Chamber, publishes his opinions in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome).

I do not believe, with Förster, that sexual education ought to be deferred until a child is ten or eleven years old, but that attention should be paid to this from the very first, and that from the day it begins asking where children come from it should be given answers which do not distort the truth. To-day the pure source of life is polluted by the false method of secrecy in education. A boy picks up some of the ugliest facts in the street, which prompts him to disbelieve his mother; he thus loses his confidence in her, while growing up without the respect he might have had for the laws of nature and without ability for artless consideration of the multiplying of the species. . . . With children one ought always to be simple, frank, and sincere.

Signor Foà, however, admits that not under all circumstances can the proper sort of sexual education be given at home. Among the lower classes, not only do thousands of mothers spend much of their time and strength on earning bread away from home, but the manner in which thousands of families live in congested urban districts would nullify any admonitions, because of the promiscuous herding together of all ages. There, the first necessity is sanitary housing and instruction by the health authorities how to keep the houses in hygienic condition; gardens and playgrounds, too, should in those cases be thought of. In fact, it is incumbent upon the schools to take up the matter.

But the school of to-day is also full of prejudice; there also prevails the idea that the sexual instinct should be regarded as something unworthy, if not culpable; there, too, a ban is put upon all reference to the propagation of the race. Natural history is taught there without any recognition whatever of the sexual functions. Respiration, circulation, digestion, all are carefully explained, but the organs by which undigested matter is removed from the body are not mentioned, because proper bringing up forbids it, and because the region must not be too closely approached where the organs of generation are situated, which,—so the school says,—do not exist. Anatomical plates for the schoolroom invariably represent beings with no sex. . . . Our young people learn of the existence of Mesopotamia, and they probably know by name the rivers running through central Asia, but they do not know what to call certain parts of their own bodies, or what the functions of those parts may be. A Danish inspector of schools was quite right in asserting that if school children were taught at school how to pronounce, as they might be other words, confinement, pregnancy, semen, ovary, uterus, then these terms would soon lose their terror. The schools could impart knowledge of the wonderful phenomenon of the propagation of the species in a systematic and entirely chaste manner, in the course of lessons on vegetable and animal life. It should not be treated separately, or given a place of exaggerated importance, but should be taken up, like any other phenomenon of nature, on due occasion. The master ought to teach his pupils to talk naturally about natural things, and in a candid fashion, as well as in that spirit of reverence which the great marvels of nature inspire.

The writer of this article, besides, dwells upon the great importance of parents teaching children to keep all parts of their bodies clean and healthy, for the sake of the succeeding generation.

FINANCE AND BUSINESS

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH

A "NATURAL MONOPOLY" AND ITS SUPERVISION

THE small boy in blue who takes your telegrams to and from the office may be personally amusing or appealing. But he is uneconomic. You could save time by telephoning your messages direct to the man at the "key," explained President Vail, of the American Telephone & Telegraph Company, last month.

Since the "Tel. & Tel.," better known as the "Bell" telephone combination, has just bought control of the Western Union Telegraph, President Vail has a chance to demonstrate the economies of 'phone and 'graph under one management. Half of the telegraph "trunk" lines can be used for telephone messages and three-fourths of the telephone "trunk" lines can be used for telegrams.

When one considers that nearly all telephoning takes place in the day, but that a large volume of commercial wire business is sent at the cheaper "night rates," an enormous saving seems possible. Nobody wants to bother with two 'phones in his house or office, of course.

Up to this point all may agree with President Vail that the handling of messages over wires constitutes "a natural monopoly." But the "Tel. & Tel." is paying 8 per cent. on more than $250,000,000 already. Independent telegraph companies are conspicuous by their absence. With isolated exceptions, the independent 'phone companies have been reporting little to their stockholders but complaints.

Therefore, a committee of the New York Legislature was last month taking testimony from President Vail and others. The evidence pointed to better service to the subscribers at the same cost as a result of more combination. But if the operation of the wires is to become a centralized or really public institution, then it would seem that the public ought to have some say as to rates and financing, through the public service commissions which keep just such oversight over the railroad companies.

An opposite policy was declared in Michigan on the 10th of last month. The Supreme Court emphasized the refusal to let the telegraphs and telephones in Michigan do business under a single head. "For more than a quarter of a century the Legislature has seen fit to keep separate these two lines of activity. Wherever the telegraph line is, there, too, is the telephone. In the hands of the independent agencies it may well be that a healthy competition for the transmission of information by electricity will ensue."

Thus the passing or the prosperity of the little messenger boy in blue will indicate the tendency of government either to recognize and to control the tendency of capital to combine in larger units, or to oppose it.

In Maryland a bill has just been completed by the Attorney General which, if passed, will put all the "wires," as well as the rails, both steam and electric, the water and gas mains, the refrigerating, heating, and power plants, under the supervision of the public's representatives. The bill follows most closely the New York public utilities laws. It also has features from the similar laws of Wisconsin and Massachusetts, from the report of the commission which inquired into the matter for the Connecticut Legislature last year, and from bills introduced into the legislatures of Ohio and New Jersey.

THE OLD-FASHIONED TELEPHONE

NOW that the siren song of the agent selling stock in "wireless" this and that can be heard in most rural sections of the country, it would be interesting to compare the earnings and dividends of the wireless companies with those sending messages in the old-fashioned way. However, the comparison seem unavailable, owing to the reluctance of most "wireless" concerns to furnish vulgar but necessary details,—earnings, expenses, money received from stock sales as compared with the amount of stock outstanding, etc.,—in "sworn" form.

Look down the list of the fifty-odd stocks of telegraph, telephone, and cable companies handled on the London Exchange. Here are

companies in Denmark and in Egypt, in South America and in Spain; and the only one not paying a dividend is the one wireless company represented!

Striking is the spread of the telephone from nothing thirty-three years ago, and from only a minor position as recently as eleven years ago, until to-day the wires for telephones are about nine times those for telegraphs in America.

Within two years a single company, the American Telephone & Telegraph, has raised more than $90,000,000 on good terms, and through J. P. Morgan & Co., a firm not given to financing the obsolete.

There is a Bell telephone to-day for every twenty people in the United States. The earnings of the company last year were $140,000,000, exceeded by few industrials, or railroads even.

Such an aggrandizement points to public regulation, and therefore frightens some stockholders. They can observe, however, that the present management of the Tel. & Tel. has expressed itself as favoring supervision, if intelligent. It is freer with publicity than most corporations. It has made and announced a valuation of the company's physical property; the items added up to $547,000,000. With cash, securities, and supplies owned, etc., the total exceeds the company's $592,000,000 capitalization by some $85,000,000. Such "physical" items as State authorities have checked up have proved to be conservatively appraised. And no capital whatever is made of good-will, patents, or the rights of way for which the company actually paid some $8,000,000.

THE CONTROL OF BILLIONS

"IT will center the control of our money in the East." This comment upon the "central bank" plan, as brought before the public by Senator Aldrich's speech-making trip, was to be found last month in many Middle Western and other newspapers.

Only a few days later came a striking illustration of the way money is being concentrated under the banking system we have at present. A $90,000,000 trust company, the Guaranty of New York, was purchased by a syndicate associated with members of the banking firm of J. P. Morgan & Co. A few days after that the news appeared that Mr. Morgan personally had bought the majority stock of the Equitable, a life insurance company, whose assets of $472,000,000 include the control of two more trust companies, the Mercantile and the Equitable, resources $68,000,000 and $63,000,000, respectively.

The newspapermen fell busily to work figuring up how many financial institutions were now being managed in some degree of harmony with the very powerful Morgan banking firm. Following are the names widely mentioned in this connection. Some of them, at the head of the list, are under direct "Morgan" control. Others, nearer the end, are discussed by the financial community and its press as more or less "associated with" or "influenced by" members of that firm:

	Assets or resources.
Equitable Life Assurance Society	$472,339,508
Equitable Trust Company	63,821,500
Mercantile Trust Company	68,474,700
National Bank of Commerce	226,549,095
First National Bank	139,621,689
Chase National Bank	107,285,710
Mechanics' National Bank	51,364,368
National Copper Bank	40,307,764
Liberty National Bank	24,705,014
Bankers' Trust Company	53,926,900
Astor Trust Company	15,209,900
New York Life Insurance Company	494,408,807
National City Bank	280,447,971
New York Trust Company	66,145,300
Standard Trust Company	18,450,100
Total	$2,123,058,326

Just to realize what the figures amount to, suppose it were decided to "cash in" these resources, now largely in stocks, bonds, mortgages, and notes. All the cash in all the National, State, and private banks of America and all the trust companies, as reported on the close of business April 28, 1909, would equal only two-thirds the necessary amount.

In fact those assets and resources exceed by about $670,000,000 the coin and bullion which in November, 1909, could have been furnished by the combined central banks of England, France, Germany, Austria, and Belgium.

It happens that Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan has been for many years one of the greatest constructionists in the material development of America. Indeed, he is the man to whom in the disaster of two years and two months ago the financial community looked for leadership, and got it. Therefore the feeling expressed last month was one, not of alarm, but of added confidence, in that the banking power of this firm and its friends had been further extended.

But if one group of men can obtain such power why not some day another, and possibly less trustworthy, set?

Certain great railroad and manufacturing

corporations are also accustomed to obtain their funds through the Morgan banking firm, which has a prestige enabling it to recommend successfully large issues of stock and bonds to the financial community. The companies more or less mentioned in this connection are:

Southern Railway	$466,609,877
Pere Marquette	96,348,000
Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton	82,369,000
Chicago Great Western	104,766,015
International Harvester	120,000,000
International Mercantile Marine	180,265,361
U. S. Steel Corporation	1,497,001,500
Erie Railroad	414,256,417
Pullman Company	100,000,000
General Electric Company	80,101,600
American Telephone and Western Union Telegraph	515,073,200
United Dry Goods Company	20,000,000
Public Service Corporation	66,500,000
Interborough & Manhattan	169,192,000
Hudson & Manhattan	57,374,000
Brooklyn Rapid Transit	125,000,000
Group of railroads, including New Haven, New York Central, Atlantic Coast Line, Louisville & Nashville, and Hill roads	3,559,104,636
Total	$7,653,961,606

It is not a theory; it is a present condition, the tendency toward centralization of banking power, as of many other kinds of power. The only question is: Should there not be a centralized institution more powerful than any other, on the board of which representation shall be given to the people of the United States? The year or more before legislation to this effect can be proposed may well be spent by good citizens in self-education.

The Monetary Commission at Washington has prepared some useful monographs for distribution. Your publisher can furnish a list of books by financial authorities that explain why European countries are with central banks and without panics.

ENVIOUS OF THE FARMER

A "WALL STREET" newspaper was much disturbed last month over the "affluence of the agricultural classes." Georgia farmers, for instance, got $50,000,000 more this year than last for a crop of about the same size. There is joy in Georgia, but not in Fall River and the other centers of cotton factories, many of which have lately been striving to curtail spinning operations to keep the price of the finished product up along with the price of raw cotton.

Such reflections, however inspired, are economically correct. Horses and mules in Kansas at $10 and $11 a head more than last year, steers in Chicago at $9.50, the highest price since Civil War times, milk a quarter more than ten years ago, eggs twice as much, butter and potatoes half as much again,—these represent price inflation and the necessity of readjustment right down the line, just as truly as the most sensational movements on the New York Stock Exchange.

Last month Secretary James Wilson's annual report on agriculture appeared and revealed that without exception "every crop was worth more to the farmer than the five-year average." The volume did not always increase in proportion. In fact, in the case of cotton, hay, barley, flaxseed, and rye there were decreases.

A one-dollar "farm price" for wheat per bushel, as in November, has not been equaled since 1881. Tobacco has been as high per pound only two or three times since 1865.

Every business profits when crops are large. When the farmer raises his prices, however, the consumer has to pay or else do some raising himself. Secretary Wilson's report puts a sharp weapon in the hands of the railroad men and the manufacturers, even some of the tariff-protected ones.

RAILROADS AND STRIKES

NOT only the higher prices, but also the labor troubles that prosperity brings mean sleepless nights for the railroad manager.

Last month the switchmen of the Northwestern railroads lost their fight, but not until a lesson had been given of what would happen to the United States if a big railroad strike were to succeed.

For instance, at Butte and Great Falls, Mont., the Boston & Montana Mining Company ordered closed its mines and smelter employing 5000 men. Its bins were full of ore and there were no trains to haul them out. In fact, this entire town depends on the mines and smelters. Credit is given to the miner only while he has work.

In Minneapolis the flour mills closed. Thirty-five hundred employees were idle. It was estimated that another fortnight would have introduced a coal, grain, and food famine throughout the entire Northwest.

The railroad company is under a disadvantage. The law compels it to perform the service for which it is chartered. The employee, on the other hand, is at perfect liberty to refuse to work.

About the middle of last month it was expected that trainmen and firemen, too, and even the more conservative engineers might put in demands early in 1910.

Able railroad men like President Brown, of the New York Central, did not seem inclined to consider the employees' demands unreasonable. They did, however, emphatically declare that there was no money to meet those demands unless railroad rates could be raised. A careful study of the latest available figures from the Interstate Commerce Commission reveals that the wages of to-day, together with the other railroad expenses of operation, cost the roads 67.5 cents out of every dollar they take in, and of this 67.5 cents, 61.3 *per cent.* is paid out in wages.

Simple arithmetic will demonstrate that in the case of many railroads a 16 per cent. wage raise would cut into the earnings now available for interest on bonds. In other words, the roads would find themselves brought down to bare rock from the surpluses they have won since the depression of 1908.

Most people on salaries need more money to meet the higher prices of commodities. If the railroad men can demonstrate a reasonable need, the financial safety of the railroads will depend on the adoption of some plan like that which Chairman Knapp, of the Interstate Commerce Commission, is quoted as favoring,—that the railroads should make more money and that the Government should control them more stringently.

PUBLIC CONTROL, NOT MANAGEMENT OF RAILROADS

IN effect, the New York Court of Appeals said to the "upstate" Public Service Commission last month: "Control railroad financing, but don't try to manage it," and thereby laid a ghost.

The commission had argued that the Hudson Valley Railway, to pay for which the Delaware & Hudson had proposed to issue certain bonds, was an "unfortunate" purchase for the latter's system, the price paid too high, and so on. Here was an attempt of the commissioners, declared the court, to "substitute their judgment for that of the board of directors and stockholders of the corporation as to the wisdom of the transaction." And such action the court held to be outside the purposes of the law.

This removes one scare for investors and workers in railroad and other big interstate corporations. Regulation within these limits may halt ambition, but it does not confiscate. The court took occasion, however, to point out the usefulness of the New York commissions in heading off such stock and bond issues as are improper in purpose, bringing insufficient cash to the company or representing simply a scheme for "company officers to enrich themselves at the expense of innocent and confiding investors."

For instance, only a week previous the New York commission had created a big commotion by the restrictions which it imposed on the New York Central Railroad in granting an application for the issue of $44,658,000 new stock. Not only must the company swear to use the money for certain refunding and improvements alone, not only must it promise not to charge certain discounts and bankers' commissions to capital account, but it must report monthly to the commission every detail of the transaction up to completion.

For the wisdom of such restriction, take the matter of discount. When the Atchison Railroad got in trouble in 1893 the investigating accountants found that 42 per cent. of the theoretical "cost of road" represented nothing but discount on bonds,—the amount which the road would have received if the bonds had been sold at par,—in other words, nothing at all.

So the submission of the New York Central to the recent restrictions will raise its credit by so much. In the long run, what is good for the investor is good for the corporation.

THE IMMIGRANT, THE AUTOMOBILE, AND OTHER SIGNS OF PROSPERITY

IN calculating just how prosperous this nation was during 1909, two of the most picturesque signs also prove to be two of the most significant. These are the movements of immigrants and the imports of automobiles.

The more work in America the more immigrants, and *vice versa*. For the first eleven months of last year there were 879,401 new citizens coming in at New York and only 257,223 going out,—nearly the reverse the same months the year before, when only 373,292 arrived, while 631,795 were departing.

Foreign automobiles entered New York during the first eleven months of last year to the number of 1881. During the same periods of 1908 and 1907, respectively, there were only 1548 and 1338.

The "new high records" handed in as the year closed by the farmer and the stock broker, the corporation, and the Government hint at good prospects for 1910.

Running the Government, paying off public debts, and building the Panama Canal have been losing Uncle Sam less money. The Treasury made a better showing for November with a deficit of little more than $7,000,000. Counting November and the four preceding months of Uncle Sam's fiscal year, the deficit is only $44,000,000, as compared with $93,000,000 for the same period a year before.

The 3000 manufacturers who are members of the National Association reported uniformly, last month, increases of business during the year past. As shown by the table following, based on percentage of replies, everybody looks forward to "good future prospects," except the food products manufacturers. Under this heading come the big breweries and distilleries, whose business has been so crippled by the prohibition wave:

Industry.	Good present business conditions.	Good future prospects.
Agricultural implements	100	100
Cement and clay products	85	100
Crockery and glassware	76	100
Drugs and chemicals	94	97
Food products	87	78
Iron and steel	93	97
Leather and its manufactures	95	100
Lumber and its manufactures	94	100
Machinery	97	100
Paper and printing	96	97
Textiles	94	98
Tools and hardware	95	97
Vehicles	89	92

The imports of precious stones promise to break all records. The first ten months of 1909 had brought in $34,000,000 worth. In the entire fiscal year of 1906 there had been less than $42,000,000, and in 1907 less than $30,000,000.

Already stockholders are beginning to reap the reward of so much prosperity. The dividends of the big industrial corporations for 1909 were $22,000,000 more than the year before. Total, $137,899,000. The railroad increase was not so great, less than $14,000,000, but the total amount reached $257,242,000.

STOCK PRICES AND BOND PRICES

WITH record-breaking crops at record-breaking prices, the recent unprecedented rise in corporation shares is seen to have had a solid foundation. The sharp-eyed crop experts employed by the big brokerage firms and others interested in the stock market had been sending encouragement to their principals ever since the spring.

The producers of the crops are paid the enormous sum they represent within a single year. This item means more than any other in the annual balance sheet to sellers, whether of railroad traffic, manufactured products, magazines, or what not. Therefore the biggest single factor of the stock market of next year is unknown still. Beware the prophet.

With bonds there is a difference. True, this difference is less pronounced with bonds that have less earning power behind them in relation to the interest they call for. Glance down the bond list of the New York Stock Exchange, find the issues which are actually dealt in, but return as much as 6 per cent. even in the present year's market, and you will have bonds that will fluctuate in the main along with stocks.

But the high-grade issues, the kind that now pay less than 4 per cent., can be considered for investment more scientifically than stocks. Their safety being beyond question, they rise and fall pretty much with the rates for money.

This money rate, as it affects bonds, seems steadily increasing. Calculations were made in last month's circular from one of the most frequently quoted dealers in government and other high-grade bonds, covering typical gilt edge 3½ per cent. railroad bonds at their three high points of the last twelve years, made in 1900, in 1905, and in January, 1909. *At the first point they returned the purchaser but* 3.20 *per cent.; at the second* 3.60, *and at the third* 3.85.

These bonds have grown in safety each year, as the conditions have grown more stable. Yet they continue to fall in price. One influence, little appreciated among investors in general, is the rapid increase in the world's production of gold. It is now about $450,000,000 a year, some four and a half times what it averaged between 1860 and 1890.

The more gold, the higher the prices for any given quantity of goods or service. The effect on high-grade bonds is, of course, a lowering of their price, since they call for only a fixed sum.

The effect on some stocks is exactly the opposite. Most "industrials," especially such as manufacture proprietary articles on which the price can be raised at pleasure to meet the higher expenses for supplies and labor, will benefit.

But most of the railroads, street railways, and other companies restrained by law or public feeling from raising their rates to keep pace with the higher prices, will suffer if the gold flow continues to wax greater.

THE NEW BOOKS

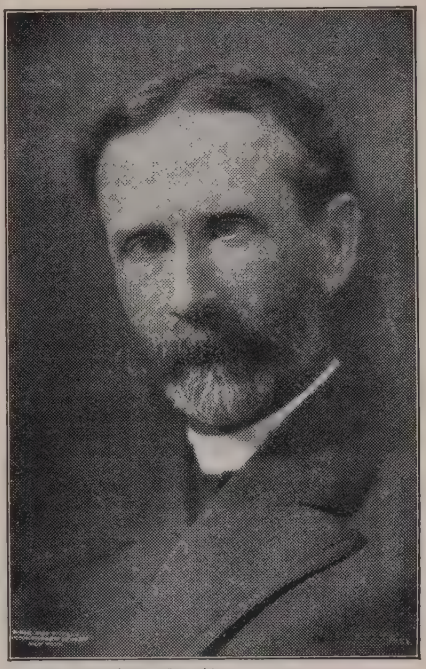
REPRESENTATIVE FICTION OF THE SEASON

For the first time, we believe, the life, ideas, and aspirations of a modern English girl, who is also a typical product of our own day all over the world, has been told with perfectly calm, unreserved frankness in "Ann Veronica."[1] Mr. H. G. Wells tells the story of the vague, restless wanderings of a revolting daughter who, "desiring to realize herself," runs away from home and tries to make her way in London. She joins the advanced set, studies biology in its frankest aspects, is arrested and imprisoned for participation in the suffragette demonstrations, and has various unpleasant experiences because of her belief in the possibility of a friendship between men and an unmarried young girl. She finally marries a man whose own past had been very checkered, and it all turns out exalted and beautiful in the end. Mr. Wells knows the workings of the modern mind in both man and woman, and his style is masterly. Despite, however, her courage and modernity, it is not possible to greatly admire Ann Veronica because Mr. Wells has made her (to quote the words of an English reviewer) "such a willful exaltation of the importance of the temporary satisfaction of the passion of the individual over the welfare of the whole community."

A three-volume novel, which contains a great deal of history and at times very stirringly set forth, is the love story of Alexander the Great, by Marshall M. Kirkman. Under the volume headings "Alexander the Prince, "Alexander the King," and "Alexander and Roxana,"[2] Mr. Kirkman weaves a fairly good plot, and reproduces with considerable success, it seems to us, the spirit of the Greece of Alexander's time.

Much material for good fiction undoubtedly exists in "Canada in the Making." That popular if somewhat hasty story writer, Ralph Connor, has taken for the subject of his recent novel "The Foreigner,"[3] the career of a Russian exile, and his in the end successful attempt to carve out his fortune and win the hand of his Canadian sweetheart.

In David Graham Phillips' latest novel, "The Hungry Heart,"[4] we have the problem of an American wife of the most modern type who wants to share her husband's life work and is not permitted to do it. While he experiments in his chemical laboratory she drifts into an "affair" with a man who seems to understand her and supply her "hungry heart" with the companionship, intellectual appreciation, and affectionate demonstration for which she yearns. The tragic outcome of it all, inevitable from the first, the divorce, and the future of the child, are all treated powerfully and with a keen perception of the springs of modern social and intellectual life. It cannot be said that Mr. Phillips lacks courage any more than it can be said that he possesses the delicacy of literary touch necessary to write a great novel. Yet this story,



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RALPH CONNOR

(Author of "The Foreigner")

"The Hungry Heart," certainly makes "good reading."

In all of Mr. Robert Hichens' novels (note especially "The Garden of Allah" and "The Call of the Blood") we find alluring, seductive descriptions of the Orient, with its romance and wonderful pictures of the desert wastes. Another desert Oriental region, this time northern Africa,—if Africa may be included in the Orient,—is the scene of his latest novel, "Bella Donna."[5] This is the story of the love conflict between an earthly woman and a man of high ideals. Opening in London, the story moves to Egypt and the scene is laid in the valley of the Nile. Through the mazes of the plot move Occidental and Oriental characters, and there are many bits of fine description of Egyptian scenes and customs.

Mr. William de Morgan is coming to be remembered for the humor, humanity, and optimism of his novels, for their length and for their odd titles. Having given us "Alice-for-Short" and "Somehow Good," he now presents "It

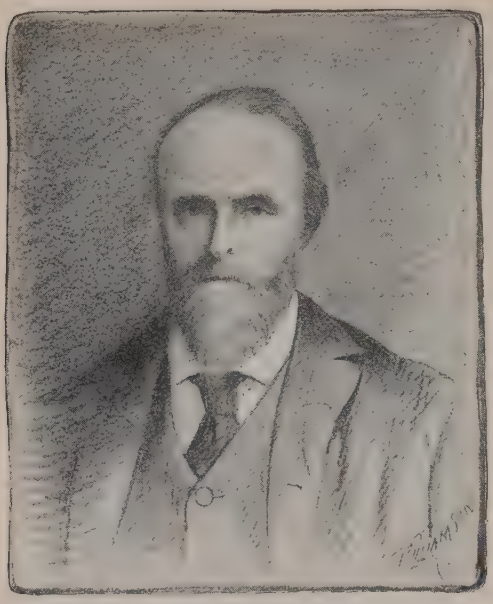
[1] Ann Veronica. By H. G. Wells. Harpers. 377 pp., ill. $1.50.

[2] The Alexandrian Novels. 3 vols. By Marshall M. Kirkman. Chicago: Cropley Phillips Company. 1200 pp., ill. $4.50.

[3] The Foreigner. By Ralph Connor. New York: George H. Doran Company. 384 pp. $1.50.

[4] The Hungry Heart. By David Graham Phillips. Appletons. 502 pp. $1.50.

[5] Bella Donna. By Robert Hichens. Lippincott. 537 pp. $1.50.



WILLIAM DE MORGAN

(Author of "It Never Can Happen Again")

Never Can Happen Again."[1] A number of individuals of as many different classes in English society are brought together in this book in a series of strange yet possible events that "never can happen again." At least three distinct stories are slowly evolved through the 687 pages of this book. All these stories show the author's mastery of the construction and mechanics of novel writing, as well as subtle insight into the minutest phases of human character. It is interesting to note the fact that this book was published on the author's seventieth birthday.

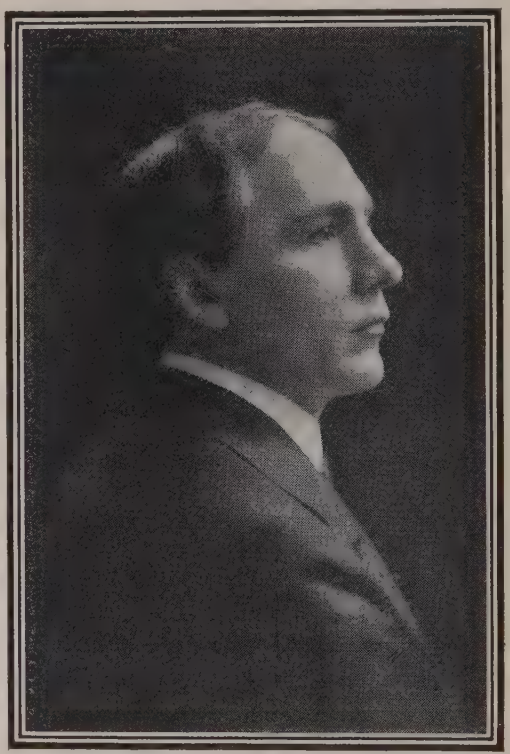
Maurice Hewlett, in "Open Country,"[2] reminds us once more of certain marked resemblances to the late George Meredith, and at the same time reveals original qualities of style and creative power that forbid his being classed with the mere imitators. The heroine of "Open Country," a young English girl who defies the conventions of modern English society, is more likely to win the reader's sympathy than are the various members of her aggrieved family. Yet the real mystery of the story is Senhouse, whose outpourings of sentiment, mingled with the shrewdest and most practical of philosophy, make up the vital part of the book. In the end it is the personal influence of Senhouse, the radical, that makes for true conservatism.

Sir Gilbert Parker has again given us one of his stories of the Canadian West. In "Northern Lights"[3] he tells a rattling good story of the Canadian West, the action, in his own words, covering "the period since the Royal Northwest Mounted Police and the Pullman car first startled the early pioneer, and either sent him further north or turned him into a humdrum citizen."

A dramatic moving tale which contains much of humor and pathos and a good deal of suggestive, inspiring comment on present-day social conditions is Thomas Nelson Page's latest novel, "John Marvel, Assistant."[4] The scene is laid, first, in a Southern college and later in the open country of the Middle West. It is vital and intensely American.

What purports to be the heart chronicle of a merry Southern society girl after her meeting with a simple, rugged Northern preacher of Scotch ancestry and set forth with a quaint simplicity of style, is Robert E. Knowles' novel "The Attic Guest."[5] British and Canadian reviewers are beginning to call Mr. Knowles "the Ian Maclaren of Canada," and there is a good deal in his books, "St. Cuthberts" and the one under discussion, to justify this claim.

There is more than one startling,—indeed, highly improbable,—incident and situation in the romance problem story "Margarita's Soul,"[6] which the pseudonymic author subtitles "The Recollections of a Man of Fifty." This young woman, Margarita, has learned none of the things that ordinary young women learn and



ROBERT E. KNOWLES

(Author of "The Attic Guest")

[1] It Never Can Happen Again. By William de Morgan. Holt. 687 pp. $1.75.
[2] Open Country. By Maurice Hewlett. Scribner. 321 pp. $1.50.
[3] Northern Lights. By Sir Gilbert Parker. Harpers. 352 pp., ill. $1.50.
[4] John Marvel, Assistant. By Thomas Nelson Page. Scribners. 573 pp., ill. $1.50.
[5] The Attic Guest. By Robert E. Knowles. Fleming H. Revell Company. 402 pp. $1.20.
[6] Margarita's Soul. By Ingraham Lovell. John Lane Company. 304 pp., ill. $1.50.

she never, or very seldom, does what other young women would do under certain circumstances. Therefore she is an interesting but perhaps not very useful literary creation. The author, "Ingraham Lovell," has been variously guessed to be Robert Hichens, Edith Wharton, Booth Tarkington, and Mr. Dooley.

A very powerful, but depressing and gloomy, study of life among the working classes of Holland is given by I. Querido, one of the most powerful of modern Dutch novelists. This story, "Toil of Men,"[1] tells of the sordid, sensual life of the lower Dutch classes in the city. As a bit of realism it is very noteworthy, but the aftertaste is, to say the least, exceedingly disagreeable.

The conception of a man "becoming anxious when he had been dead about thirty years" because he had not yet reached Heaven is startling

"HELEN" ON THE BATTLEMENTS OF TROY

(Illustration reproduced from Maurice Hewlett's novel, "The Ruinous Face"). See notice on page 124.

and original enough to satisfy even the most blind admirer of Mark Twain. Yet this is the theme of Mr. Clemens' latest story, published in book form, "Captain Stormfield's Visit to Heaven."[2] This purports to be the mariner's own account of his celestial journey, taken from his own manuscript. Just what happened to Captain Stormfield in his thirty years' cometary plunge through space and his impressions of the entrance to Paradise,—these things must be reserved for a perusal of the book itself.

A number of Mr. Kipling's more recent short stories, most of which have already appeared in monthly periodicals in this country and in England, have been gathered into a volume en-

"JANET," OF "STEVE'S WOMAN," BY MRS. HAVELOCK ELLIS

titled "Actions and Reactions."[3] We think that in some of these Mr. Kipling may be found at his best, notably in the ones entitled "With the Night Mail" (already noticed in these pages in August), "The Puzzler," and "The House Surgeon."

One of the strongest and most outspoken of the novels of the present season, treating of the sex question in a simple, direct, and powerful way, yet without offense to the best taste, is Mrs. Havelock Ellis' "Steve's Woman."[4] It is the tense life story of a crippled Cornish

[1] Toil of Men. By I. Querido. Putnam. 336 pp. $1.35.
[2] Captain Stormfield's Visit to Heaven. By Mark Twain. Harpers. 121 pp., ill. $1.
[3] Actions and Reactions. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday, Page & Co. 324 pp., ill. $1.50.
[4] Steve's Woman. By Mrs. Havelock Ellis. New York: John McBride Company. 259 pp., ill. $1.50.

miner and his vigorous, beautiful wife, whose humanity and strong love are splendidly set forth.

A vivid, luminous story reproducing the spirit and atmosphere of the time of the Trojan war, which the author, Maurice Hewlett, has entitled

"FARTHEST SOUTH"

(Reproduced from Lieutenant Shackleton's book, "The Heart of the Antarctic")

"The Ruinous Face,"[1] gives him a chance to retell the story of Helen of Troy in his own appealing, picturesque, and poetic style.

A remarkable analysis of a social situation in the true James fashion is "Julia Bride,"[2] the latest piece of fiction of Henry James. The story is more of an incident analyzed and elaborated to create an impression than a novel with plot or movement. It is masterly, but not particularly sympathetic reading.

SHACKLETON'S ANTARCTIC NARRATIVE

Lieutenant Shackleton's impressive two-volume story of his South Polar expedition[3] is one of stirring adventure and human experience as well as scientific discovery. Throughout the more than nine hundred pages of this absorbing recital, told in the simple, forceful language for which the explorer has already become known around the world, he gives not only the actual achievements of the expedition but the experiences, many of them soul-harrowing and body-racking, of himself and other members of his party. Lieutenant Shackleton, it will be remembered, succeeded in reaching a point within one hundred geographical miles of the South Pole, of discovering the south magnetic pole, of ascending Mt. Erebus (more than 13,000 feet above sea level), of discovering eight mountain chains, finding rich coal deposits, and confirming the belief held by scientific men for some years that the South Pole itself lies on a high plateau. The illustrations to this volume, which are over three hundred in number and reproduced from photographs taken by the author and his party, bring very vividly to the reader's senses as well as intellectual comprehension the great achievement set forth so modestly and convincingly.

[1] The Ruinous Face. By Maurice Hewlett. Harpers. 43 pp., ill. $1.

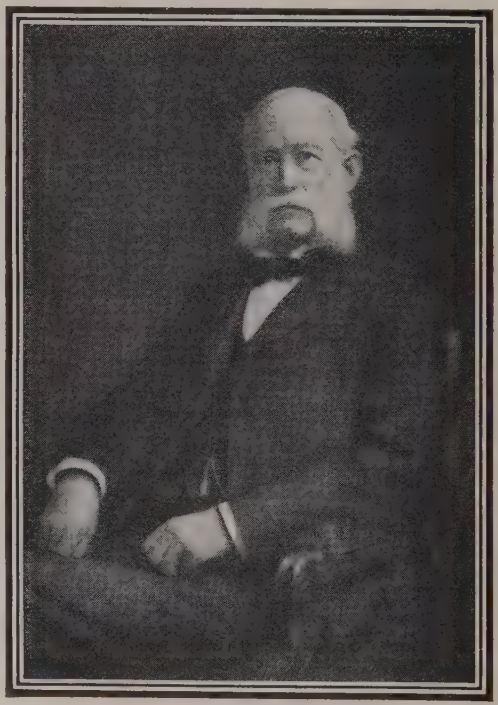
[2] Julia Bride. By Henry James. Harper. 84 pp., ill. $1.25.

[3] The Heart of the Antarctic. 2 vols. By Ernest H. Shackleton. Lippincott. 900 pp., ill. $10.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS

In two smoothly written volumes that veteran diplomatist, John W. Foster, gives his "Diplomatic Memoirs."[4] Mr. Foster's diplomatic career began in 1873 when he was appointed Minister to Mexico. Ever since that date, through his experiences at St. Petersburg, Madrid, as American Minister, and as special international commissioner on various other highly important international bodies, Mr. Foster has served his country with distinction, and his reminiscences could not fail to be "worth while." The two volumes are illustrated with portraits.

It is difficult for any of us moderns to realize how frequent and radical have been the changes in "modes and manners" during the past century among civilized men and women. Just now startling have been some of these changes in customs and dress can be seen very graphically in the beautifully illustrated three-volume work entitled "Modes and Manners of the Nineteenth Century,"[5] originally compiled in French from the pictures and engravings of the time, now



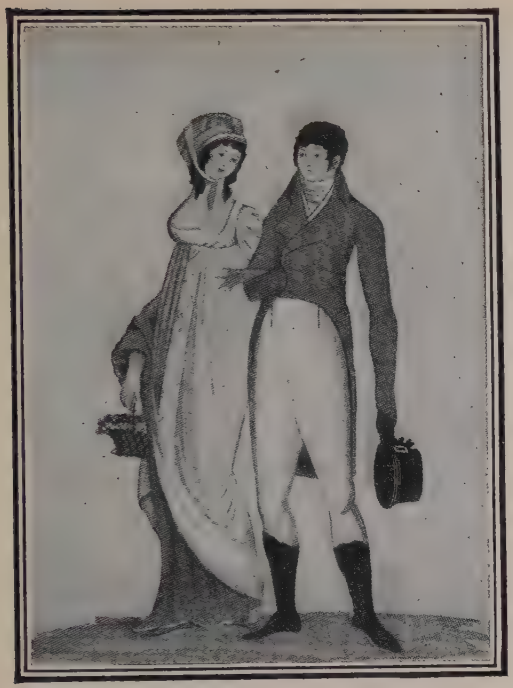
JOHN W. FOSTER

(Whose "Diplomatic Memoirs" have just appeared)

translated by M. Edwardes. This work is not merely a fashion chronicle but an incisive history of the life and social ideas of the people of Europe from early in the '90s of the eighteenth

[4] Diplomatic Memoirs. 2 vols. By John W. Foster. Houghton Mifflin Company. 669 pp., ill. $6.

[5] Modes and Manners of the Nineteenth Century. 3 vols. Dutton. 500 pp., ill. $7.



THE FASHIONABLE LADY AND GENTLEMAN OF 1802

(From the Hamburger *Journal der Moden und Eleganz*, 1802. Reproduced in "Modes and Manners of the XIX Century")

LADY JANE GREY

(Frontispiece to the "Nine Days' Queen." By Richard Davey)

century up to 1878. We reproduce herewith one of the typical illustrations.

An exceedingly sympathetic biography of Melba,[1] with chapters by the Diva herself on the selection of music as a profession and on the science of singing, has been written by one of Melba's admirers, Agnes G. Murphy. A number of excellent illustrations from hitherto

MELBA

(Frontispiece to the recently published biography by Agnes Murphy)

unpublished portraits of the singer add to the attraction of the volume. There is also a descriptive list of the operas in which Melba has appeared.

The tragic story of Lady Jane Grey, from the personal rather than the political point of view, has been told by Richard Davey in an illustrated volume entitled "The Nine Days' Queen."[2] Keeping as he has frankly done to the personal viewpoint, Mr. Davey yet admits that it is this very element of personal pathos that has obscured the wider national significance of the brief occupancy of the chair of state at London by the saintly, unfortunate girl. Mr. Davey has given us in this book a picture of the society of England at the time of Henry VIII.'s various matrimonial adventures.

THE FAMILY AND ITS PROBLEMS

In the large and increasing list of books of advice published for parents about their physical, intellectual, and moral preparation for

[1] Melba: A Biography. By Agnes G. Murphy. Doubleday, Page & Co. 348 pp., ill. $2.75.

[2] The Nine Days' Queen. By Richard Davey. Putnams. 372 pp., ill. $3.50.

parenthood and the proper home training of the child itself, we find a few worthy of special notice. In "The Modern Mother,"[1] Dr. H. Lang Gordon has adequately and delicately discussed "Girlhood, Motherhood, and Infancy." The companion volume to this, by Ernest Edwards, is entitled "For Boys,"[2] which consists of personal information upon sex matters clearly and delicately put. In two volumes designated as separate series Dr. Mary Wood-Allen discusses "Making the Best of Our Children."[3] In these little talks the right and wrong methods of child training are illustrated through concrete examples of individual cases. Each chapter discusses the right and wrong way of handling some childish crisis, and these are arranged according to the years of the child's age up to sixteen for both boys and girls. "A Mother's List of Books for Children,"[4] compiled by Gertrude Weld Arnold, contains synopsis and descriptive matter about a great many useful and educative books for the little people, and of this compilation Thomas Wentworth Higginson says that "it is a most excellent analysis." In "The Care of the Child,"[5] Mrs. Burton Chance gives some excellent advice in simple, direct language to the "average mother to help her solve her daily problems with children."

In a trenchantly written little volume of essays under the general title "Why American Marriages Fail,"[6] Mrs. Anna A. Rogers dissects the matrimonial problem as it is solved in this country. She has some strong, frank things to say, and a perusal of her volume cannot fail to be suggestive and useful to all who are interested in the alarming increase of divorce in the United States.

HENRY T. FINCK
(Author of "Success in Music, and How It Is Won")

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

Among the books for young people recently issued and not receiving mention in these pages last month are: "The April Fool Doll," by Josephine S. Gates (Bobbs Merrill); "When Mother Was a Little Girl," pictured by Ida Waugh, with verses by Amy E. Blanchard and others (Dutton); "Laboulaye's Fairy Tales," illustrated by Arthur A. Dixon (Dutton), and "Mother Goose's Nursery Rhymes," illustrated by John Hassall (Dodge Publishing Company).

For the older children there are three new publications in the Children's Bookshelf series,—"The Story of King Arthur," "Pilgrims' Tales from Chaucer," and "The Red Cross Knight and Sir Guyon" (Dodge Publishing Company); "Stories Children Love," edited by Charles Welsh; "Poems Children Love," edited by Penrhyn W. Coussens, and "A Child's Garden of Verses," by Robert Louis Stevenson, issued by the same publishing house; "Trees Every Child Should Know," by Julia E. Rogers (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and "Stories from Greek Tragedy," edited by H. L. Havell (Dodge Publishing Company).

The grown boy and girl will find good reading in "First at the North Pole," a timely story by Edward Stratemeyer, containing references to both the Peary and Cook expeditions (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard); "Basil, the Page," by G. I. Whitham (Dodge Publishing Company); "When She Came Home from College," by Marian K. Hurd and Jean B. Wilson (Houghton Mifflin Company); "The Coming of Hester," by Jean K. Baird (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), and "Mother Tucker's Seven," by Angelina W. Wray (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard).

BOOKS FOR MUSICIANS

Because so many young musicians do not reach the roots of their art they fail. This dictum, with an explanation of why the art roots are not reached by the many and how they may be reached by every one, forms the subject of Henry T. Finck's "Success in Music and How It Is Won."[7] This volume is a sort of symposium in which many of the world's greatest singers, pianists, violinists, and teachers, all known personally to Mr. Finck, tell the secrets of their success. There is a chapter by Paderewski on "Tempo Rubato."

In replies to 250 different questions[8] about the essentials of piano playing put to Josef Hofmann and printed during the past two years in

[1] The Modern Mother. By Dr. H. Lang Gordon. R. F. Fenno & Co. 278 pp., ill. $2.00.
[2] For Boys. By Ernest Edwards. R. F. Fenno & Co. 94 pp. 50 cents.
[3] Making the Best of Our Children. 2 vols. Dr. Mary Wood-Allen. Vol. 1, 254 pp.; vol. 2, 285 pp. $1.00 each
[4] A Mother's List of Books for Children. Compiled by Gertrude Weld Arnold. McClurg & Co. 268 pp. $1.
[5] The Care of the Child. By Mrs. Burton Chance. Penn Pub. Co., Philadelphia. 242 pp., ill. $1.
[6] Why American Marriages Fail. By Anna A. Rogers. Houghton Mifflin Company. 214 pp. $1.25.
[7] Success in Music and How it Is Won. By Henry T. Finck. Scribners. 471 pp. $2.
[8] Piano Questions Answered. By Josef Hofmann. 183 pp. 75 cents.

the *Ladies' Home Journal*, the virtuoso gives virtually what is a manual of piano playing. The little volume, of course, has its greatest interest for students of the piano.

Among other text-books on music or collections of musical pieces recently published and noteworthy in a discussion of the season's output, are: "Some Essentials in Musical Definitions," by Miss M. F. MacConnell; "The Essentials of Pianoforte Playing," by Clayton Johns; "Old-Time Song Hits," "Sacred Songs," and "Piano Compositions by Ludwig van Beethoven," edited by Eugen d'Albert (all published by the Oliver Ditson Company).

DOMESTIC HANDBOOKS

Two new volumes have recently appeared in the very excellent "Homemaker" series of cooking books, being prepared by Olive Green and published by the Putnams, entitled "How to Cook Meat and Poultry"[1] and "How to Cook Vegetables."[2] In the former volume there are set forth some hundreds of different ways to cook meat and poultry. The volume devoted to vegetables is even more complete, including directions for cooking such "vegetables" as chestnuts, mushrooms, noodles, hominy, etc. The books in this series are serviceably bound, the recipes are clear and concise, and the alphabetical arrangement is deserving of great praise.

Among other useful books of the same general kind are: "Housekeeping for Two," by Alice L. James (Putnams); "Colonial Recipes," by Maude A. Bomberger (Neale Publishing Company); "Practical Recipes," by Mrs. B. B. Cutter (Duffield & Co.), and "The Fireless Cook Book," by Margaret J. Mitchell (Doubleday, Page & Co.).

Now that we have at last "developed rationally and naturally an architectural style which may be fairly called our own," Mr. Aymar Embury II. believes that the characteristics of our modern American style are "honest explanation of the plan and structure in the exterior, great care and freedom in the use of materials, with an effort constantly to explain rather than to conceal their nature." These facts and characteristics Mr. Embury has endeavored to set forth in a very handsomely illustrated volume, "One Hundred Country Homes,"[3] which he takes as a type of modern American architecture. The stimulating and suggestive text accompanying these illustrations is unusually well printed, and the entire volume is very satisfactory from a typographical standpoint, as well as from the nature of its thoughtful contents.

THREE NEW LAW BOOKS

"The Study of Business Law" has, during the past few years, become part of the curriculum of all progressive schools and universities. Besides it being a training and exercise for the mind it is of such practical utility that its general educational value can hardly be overestimated. That the subject has really been adapted and co-ordinated for the purpose of study in school as well as the perusal of the general reader may be seen from three useful works on this subject recently come from the press. "American Business Law,"[4] by John J. Sullivan, a member of the Philadelphia Bar and instructor in business law at the University of Pennsylvania, consisting not only of the discussion of the subject but also presenting legal forms and comments upon historic cases. The second volume, more adapted to the legal than the commercial reader, is entitled "Commercial Law Simplified."[5] This is presented in question and answer form in simple and concise language by Charles C. Simons, a lawyer, of Detroit. It would seem that not only business and professional men, particularly accountants and credit managers, but also the general reader, would find this volume useful for reference. The third volume has historical as well as strong professional interest. It is entitled "The Courts of the State of New York,"[6] by Henry W. Scott, a lawyer of the metropolis. Mr. Scott in this volume treats of the entire historical development and jurisdiction of the courts of the Empire State from colonial times until the present.

HISTORY AND POLITICS

Miss Lois K. Mathews, instructor in history at Vassar, has made an intensely interesting study of "The Expansion of New England,"[7] tracing the progress of New England settlement and institutions as far west as the Mississippi River. It is undoubtedly true to-day that New England influence is perpetuated by the institutions of the Middle West and Far West even more than by those of the original six New England States. Miss Mathews shows how the educational and religious institutions of the New Englanders were carried by them through the old Northwest Territory, and embodied in the foundation of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. There are many suggestions of this line of influence in the histories of Rhodes and others, but so far as we know this is the first time that any writer has made an attempt to treat the subject by the monograph method.

In answer to the question, "What is the promise of American life?"[8] Mr. Herbert Croly says: The American nation "is committed to the realization of the democratic ideal, and if its promise is to be fulfilled it must be prepared to follow whithersoever that ideal may lead." Mr. Croly reasons calmly and convincingly upon the political, economic, and social problems that bar the way to a complete and early fulfillment of the "Promise" which the word America always implies, not only to the intending immigrant, but to its own citizens as well.

The Dodge Lectures delivered at Yale University by Ambassador Bryce are published under the title "The Hindrances to Good Citizenship."[9] The defective discharge of civic duty is

[1] How to Cook Meat and Poultry; [2] How to Cook Vegetables. By Olive Green. Putnams. $1 each.
[3] One Hundred Country Towns. By Aymar Embury II. Century Co. 264 pp., ill. $3.

[4] American Business Law. By John J. Sullivan. D. Appleton & Co. 433 pp. $1.50.
[5] Commercial Law Simplified. By Charles C. Simons. Business Man's Publishing Co., Detroit. 510 pp. $5.
[6] The Courts of the State of New York. By Henry W. Scott. Wilson Publishing Co. 506 pp. $5.00.
[7] The Expansion of New England. By Lois Kimball Mathews. Houghton Mifflin Company. 303 pp., maps. $2.50.
[8] The Promise of American Life. By Herbert Bryce. Yale University Press. 138 pp. $1.15.
[9] The Hindrances to Good Citizenship. By James Croly. Macmillan. 468 pp. $2.

attributed to three chief causes,—indolence, personal self-interest, and party spirit. Mr. Bryce's long experience in British politics and the years of study that he has devoted to our own institutions combine to infuse his scholarly discussion of the principles underlying popular government with profound practical wisdom.

EDUCATIONAL TOPICS

Dr. Andrew S. Draper, Commissioner of Education of the State of New York, has had a unique experience in educational administration, having served in succession as State Superintendent of Schools, as superintendent of a great city system, and as the president of a State-supported university. This varied experience contributes to the value of what Dr. Draper sets forth in a volume of papers on "American Education."[1] President Butler characterizes Dr. Draper's educational creed as "frankly and aggressively democratic." It is this note running through all of his writings on education that appeals with peculiar force to American readers.

Another writer whose essays and addresses on academic topics are always acceptable is Prof. Barrett Wendell, of Harvard. A few of his more recent "performances," as he calls them, are brought together in a little volume entitled "The Mystery of Education,"[2] which deals with such themes as the study of literature and the study of expression, including also an appreciation of Edgar Allan Poe.

A new book by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg is intended as a source of information for the teacher, presenting the essentials of "all which modern psychology may offer to the school."[3] Like Professor Münsterberg's earlier works, this book deals with the practical value of modern laboratory psychology for the daily life.

A fresh treatment of a topic that has worried many minds is offered by Prof. F. M. McMurry, of the Teachers College, Columbia University, in a volume entitled "How to Study and Teaching How to Study."[4] The author draws largely on his own observation and experiment, and gives the results of discussions held with his own students.

MESMERISM AND THE FAITH CURE

"Mesmerism and Christian Science"[5] is the title of a new book by Frank Podmore, the author of "Modern Spiritualism." This work describes the various phases of the movement initiated by Mesmer, tracing the successive steps taken by all those explorers who have sought out solutions of the perplexing problems that have arisen from time to time in relation to the field of the subconscious life.

Miss Georgine Milmine's life of "Mary Baker G. Eddy,"[6] which was first published in serial form in *McClure's Magazine* two years ago, has now been revised and brought out in book form. The remarkable career of this religious leader and the history of the organization which she founded and still rules are narrated in detail. Whatever may be one's attitude toward the claims of this faith the clear statement of facts in the life of its founder is quite as interesting as any novel. New and important material has been added by Miss Milmine to the original narrative.

[1] American Education. By Andrew S. Draper. Houghton Mifflin Company. 383 pp. $2.
[2] The Mystery of Education. By Bartlett Wendell. Scribners. 264 pp. $1.25.
[3] Psychology and the Teacher. By Hugo Münsterberg. Appletons. 330 pp. $1.50.
[4] How to Study and Teaching How to Study. By F. M. McMurry. Houghton Mifflin Company. 324 pp. $1.25.
[5] Mesmerism and Christian Science. By Frank Podmore. George W. Jacobs & Co. 306 pp. $1.50
[6] The Life of Mary Baker G. Eddy and the History of Christian Science. By Georgine Milmine. 495 pp., ill. $2.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

A Bishop in the Rough (Bishop of Norwich). Edited by D. Wallace Duthie. Dutton.

A Child's Guide to American History. By Henry W. Elson. Baker & Taylor Company.

Alaska Almanac. Harrison Publishing Company, Seattle.

Bibliography of the Chinese Question in the United States. By R. E. Cowan and B. Dunlap. A. M. Robertson, San Francisco.

Drugs and the Drug Habit. By Harrington Sainsbury. Dutton.

Fallacies of Protection. By Frederic Bastiat. Putnam.

Forty Years of American Finance, 1865-1907. By Alexander D. Noyes. Putnam.

Little People. By Richard Whiteing. Cassell & Co.

Men, the Workers. By Henry Demarest Lloyd. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Our Naval War with France. By Gardner W. Allen. Houghton Mifflin.

Representative Biographies of English Men of Letters. Edited by Charles T. Copeland and F. W. C. Hersey. Macmillan.

Practical Argumentation. By George K. Pattee. Century.

Social Organization. By Charles H. Cooley. Scribners.

Socialism in Local Government. By W. G. Towler. Macmillan.

The Meaning of Money. By Hartley Withers. Dutton.

The Negro Problem: Abraham Lincoln's Solution. By William P. Pickett. Putnams.

The Story of Oil. By Walter S. Tower. Appletons.

The Young Citizen's Reader. By Paul S. Reinsch. Sanborn & Co., Boston.

Walks in Paris. By Georges Cain. Macmillan.

Wigwam Evenings. By Charles A. and E. G. Eastman. Little, Brown & Co.

Your Child and Mine. By Anne Warner. Little, Brown & Co.

The American Review of Reviews

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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THE CONFERENCE OF GOVERNORS AT WASHINGTON, JANUARY 17-20

From left to right: Frank B. Weeks, Connecticut; John Franklin Fort, New Jersey; Joseph M. Brown, Georgia; Simeon S. Penniwell, Delaware; President William H. Taft; Augustus E. Willson, Kentucky; Herbert S. Hadley, Missouri; Martin S. Ansel, South Carolina; Bryant B. Brooks, Wyoming; John E. Shafroth, Colorado.

Row standing, left to right: Edwin L. Norris, Montana; Richard E. Sloan, Arizona; Aram J. Pothier, Rhode Island; W. W. Kitchin, North Carolina; William E. Glasscock, West Virginia; James O. Davidson, Wisconsin; Secretary James Wilson; James H. Brady, Idaho; Judson Harmon, Ohio; Beryl F. Carroll, Iowa; Ashton C. Shallenberger, Nebraska; Secretary Frank Hitchcock; Adolph O. Eberhart, Minnesota; George Curry, New Mexico; R. S. Vessey, South Dakota; John Burke, North Dakota.

THE AMERICAN

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

A Special Message on Conservation

President Taft's special message on the subject of conservation, sent to Congress on January 14, made it clear to the country that this Administration is not only committed definitely to the Roosevelt-Pinchot policies for saving our natural resources from spoliation, but has a specific, practical, and progressive program which it means to advocate before Congress. The President offered recommendations for legislation which he believes will go far toward the solution of many of the difficult problems related to the administration and improvement of power sites and coal lands, and to irrigation projects and inland waterways. He urged the immediate prosecution of plans for the deepening of the Ohio River and upper Mississippi River channels. For the aid of reclamation projects in the West he advocated the passage of a law permitting a $30,000,000 bond issue. For the proper disposal of the public lands and the prevention of water-power monopoly, he recommended the enactment of bills prepared by the Secretary of the Interior. All this does not look like anything that can be fairly considered as indifference on the part of the Administration toward conservation. On the contrary, the President has given to the national movement a new impetus. The controversies of the hour must not be permitted to obscure or belittle in the public mind the real service that President Taft has rendered and is now rendering to the cause.

A Famous Controversy

There are times when controversy, however unpleasant, is not to be shirked by those who have a proper sense of duty. There are other times when controversy is not only needless, but when it stands seriously in the way of getting at the truth and when those who insist upon indulging in it are hurting rather than helping a good cause that they profess to have at heart. The country has been much aroused by the so-called Ballinger-Pinchot controversy. There are questions of fact involved, and those who are of a wise and just mind will take no part in the fighting until they are sure of the ground upon which they stand. Those who attack Secretary Ballinger at the present time are in reality aspersing the good faith of President Taft, Attorney-General Wickersham, and the entire Cabinet. The proper care of the public domain, the honest administration of the Interior Department, the husbanding of our material resources, the protection of public rights and interests as against greed, rapacity, and dishonesty on the part of private claimants,—all these are necessary, and every good citizen might properly engage in controversy against all who show a different attitude. But it is not the part of any one man or any group of men to advise the country that the Taft administration is recreant in all these respects, unless upon the clearest exhibition of facts.

Persistent Charges

Secretary Ballinger has asked for a full inquiry at the hands of Congress. A joint commission consisting of six members of each House has already been selected, and there is no reason to believe that its inquiry will be other than sweeping and complete. It is our opinion that the fair-minded citizen can afford to await the results of this inquiry before accepting as conclusive the charges that have been made against the Secretary of the Interior. When the charges were originally made they were brought personally to Mr.

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Taft, who investigated them and gave to the press an extended letter fully exonerating Secretary Ballinger and bringing about the dismissal from the Land Office of the field agent, Mr. Glavis, who had brought the charges with the assistance of men employed in the Forestry Bureau of the Agricultural Department. The whole matter was investigated by Attorney-General Wickersham, who could have had no other motive except the finding out of the truth and the protection of the Taft administration from any taint of dishonor.

The Attitude of Glavis

Mr. Glavis, some weeks after his dismissal, appeared in the pages of *Collier's Weekly* with an elaborate statement so arranged as to reflect in a most damaging way upon Secretary Ballinger, Commissioner Dennett of the Land Office, and other officials. With respect to this statement, as also to the Glavis charges in general, Mr. Wickersham was widely reported as saying that the damaging effect was due to the suppression of various letters, telegrams, and documents that would have led the reader to a wholly different inference. Mr. Wickersham's investigation was a laborious one and it is declared that Mr. Glavis was given every opportunity to make good his charges. It is further declared that the Attorney-General and the President were not only in possession of everything that Mr. Glavis and others criticising the Interior Department could bring forward, but also had access to very much else which Mr. Glavis could not know, and therefore that the conclusions of President Taft and the Attorney-General rather than those of a discharged field agent ought to be accepted by the public unless one is prepared to go so far as to doubt the good faith and veracity of the nation's chief magistrate and the head of the Department of Justice.

Pinchot's Letter to Dolliver

It was after Congress had decided, at Secretary Ballinger's request, to inquire fully into the charges made against the Interior Department, and also into the Forest Service in so far as associated with the matters under dispute, that a remarkable incident occurred. Senator Dolliver, of Iowa, read on the floor of the Senate a long letter from Mr. Gifford Pinchot, head of the Forest Service, acknowledging that Mr. Overton Price, the Assistant Forester, and Mr. A. C. Shaw, a lawyer connected with the Forest Service, had been actively connected with the newspaper attacks upon Secretary Ballinger and the Interior Department and had aided Glavis in the preparation of his articles, presumably those which have appeared in *Collier's Weekly*. Mr. Pinchot, having made his own statement of the conditions creating what he deemed a public emergency of the gravest sort, praised Price and Shaw as patriots in the highest sense, and characterized the discharged Glavis as "the most vigorous defender of the people's interests." There are a good many circumstances that should be kept in mind in judging of the propriety of this letter. The office of Chief Forester is a subordinate one in the Administration, and for a man holding any executive post whatsoever to carry an attack upon the Administration into the halls of Congress would seem to have no immediate object except his own dismissal from the public service.

An Attack Upon the President

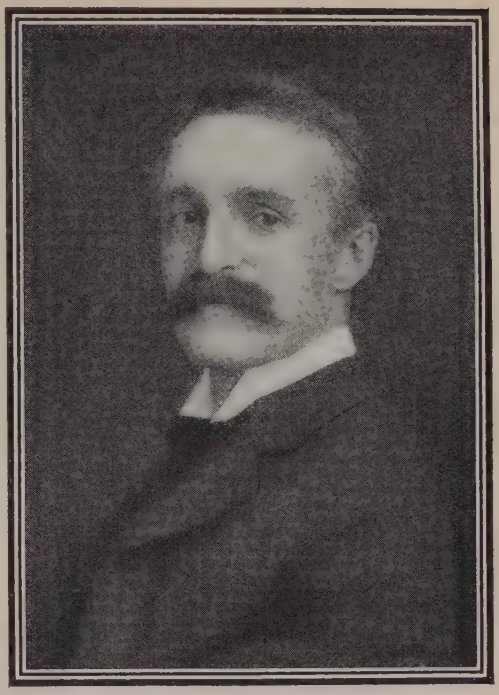
Apart from the obvious official impropriety of Mr. Pinchot's action, there was involved an attack upon the President of a peculiarly direct and personal sort. When Glavis, last summer, was dissatisfied with the treatment of the Cunningham coal claims in Alaska by the Public Land Office and the Interior Department, he took his complaints to Mr. Pinchot, who belonged to a different department of the Government. Mr. Pinchot, deeming the matter serious, advised Glavis to carry it directly to the President, and further took it upon himself to send Mr. A. C. Shaw, a lawyer in the Forest Bureau, from Washington to Chicago to assist Glavis in giving form to his attack upon Secretary Ballinger and Commissioner Dennett. In taking this unusual course Mr. Pinchot was able to rely not only upon his own sense of public duty but also upon his close personal friendship with President Taft. Mr. Taft accepted Forester Pinchot's action in the spirit in which it was intended. There was fairly to be implied Mr. Pinchot's willingness to accept President Taft's conclusions after he had looked into the matter. Yet, weeks after the President and Attorney-General had discredited the Glavis charges, Mr. Pinchot in effect rebukes the President before the Senate and the country by entitling Glavis "the most vigorous defender of the people's interests." It would seem clear to the dullest mind that such an incident must be followed by Mr. Pinchot's leaving office under President Taft.

The Authors of Press Attacks

Meanwhile, the very damaging and disturbing attacks upon the Interior Department were appearing in the press and it was constantly rumored that these attacks were really emanating from the Forest Service, although some of them appeared as coming from Glavis. An inquiry made in December, on behalf of this magazine, as to the truth of Mr. Ballinger's declaration that the newspaper attacks were being aided by officials in the Forest Bureau, was met with the most explicit and vigorous denial. It was asserted that the relation of Mr. Pinchot and his assistants to the Glavis charges had ended with the original presentation of the matter to President Taft last summer. But later, in his letter to Senator Dolliver, Mr. Pinchot not only admits that these officials in his bureau had been active in the newspaper campaign, but he glorifies them in what they had been doing. He says they had been imperiling their positions and their life work from a sense of public duty. This would have seemed more plausible if they had not been doing it secretly, anonymously, or with denials. Even if Secretary Ballinger had been a bad man,—of which we have as yet no proof whatsoever, but very much testimony to the contrary,—public sympathy would have been turned his way by scandalous assaults on his official integrity prepared and abetted by officials in the employ of the Government acting in the dark and under cover of some other man's name rather than coming out openly in their own names.

They Should Have Resigned

In short, Mr. Pinchot had referred the Cunningham claims to the President and the President had made the subject his own, had looked into it, passed upon it, and announced his decision. Under these circumstances there was nothing for Mr. Pinchot and his subordinates to do but to accept the Taft verdict and keep on with the work of their own bureau, or else to resign their positions under Mr. Taft and step out where, as private citizens and advocates of the conservation movement, they could fight openly and criticise freely. To keep their offices while devoting themselves secretly to the most active attacks upon the Administration was not to justify the high praise that Mr. Pinchot accorded to his assistants. It is not true that there was any emergency whatsoever which could justify such breaches of discipline. It would seem to go with the amazing recklessness and inexactitude of some of the statements made about the canceling of land withdrawals in the interest of the so-called Water Power Trust. Under the circumstances, the only course that President Taft could take was to order the removal of Mr. Pinchot and of his associates, Messrs. Price and Shaw, which he did on January 7.



HON. GIFFORD PINCHOT, OF NEW YORK

Pinchot as a Great Official

Mr. Taft had greatly desired to keep Mr. Pinchot at his post. Presidents and cabinet officers come and go. They are more or less amateur administrators, under our American system. But we are beginning to build up in our Government, as is true in all foreign governments, a group of great, permanent, non-political administrators who are heads of some important bureau or branch of scientific work. Such a man is Dr. Wolcott, now head of the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum, while formerly head of the Geological Survey. Such another was the late Col. Carroll D. Wright, for so many years head of the Bureau of Labor and director of the Census. In this class to-day are Mr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress; Dr. Neill, Commissioner of Labor; Mr. John Barrett, at the head of the Bureau

of the American Republics. In every department of administration there ought to be high permanent officials enjoying public confidence to the greatest extent. We have had such a man in Mr. Gifford Pinchot, head of the Forest Service. He was probably more widely known than any other executive official of the United States Government except the President himself. He seemed to have been prepared by Providence to do a great work for this country in a time of critical need.

A Practical Idealist

He had inherited an interest in the subject of forestry, and had prepared himself by thorough study at home and abroad. When in the feeble beginnings of our national forest policy we needed some one to bear the brunt and do the work, Mr. Gifford Pinchot was recognized as the right man; and he has justified all expectations many times over. He did not work for the salary,—which, indeed, he never accepted,—nor for any personal rewards, direct or indirect. He was like a man who had seen a great vision of the future glory of his country; and what he saw as a pure idealist, he followed as a trained and practical man. For Mr. Pinchot has not merely dreamed dreams or made occasional utterances. He has worked, through these long years, with an energy and a fidelity to details that would have worn out half a dozen ordinary men. Much of the time he has worked against public indifference where there ought to have been enthusiasm, and all of the time he has worked against the most bitter and unscrupulous opposition of a very dangerous class of wrongdoers. It is not so hard to oppose the law-breakers who have no standing in the community and whose offenses are of a sort that cause them to be regarded as social enemies. But offenses against the land laws, and against the interests of the Government and the people in the forests, the minerals, and the streams of the national domain, have been so general and so popular that it takes a very brave and unselfish man to stand up every day, year after year, fighting the battle of an indifferent public, represented at Washington by a somewhat hostile Congress, while at the same time trying to arouse the present generation to a sense of its duty to the future, and trying to convert Congress to a support of the new policies relating to the public domain. All this Mr. Gifford Pinchot has done. The co-called "Roosevelt policies" as to conservation were largely Mr. Pinchot's policies. A sense of our wasteful use of our resources was finally aroused, and the conservation movement became national.

The "Policies" and the Administration

Mr. Taft as a cabinet adviser of President Roosevelt was fully identified with the development of the conservation policies. Furthermore, Mr. Taft, as a trustee of Yale University and as a fellow-alumnus of Yale with Mr. Pinchot, was in close relation to the work of the Yale School of Forestry which had been created under Mr. Pinchot's guidance and in accordance with his broad policies as well as his technical theories. Mr. Taft had no thought of losing Mr. Pinchot from the work he was doing as Chief Forester. Certainly, in appointing Mr. Ballinger, of Seattle, as Secretary of the Interior, the President had no thought of a possible clash of views within his own administrative family. Mr. Ballinger has all along professed the most complete loyalty to the principles and specific policies of the conservation movement. He professed to find, however, that his predecessor and intimate friend, Mr. Garfield, had, in a most commendable spirit of zeal for public protection and welfare, stretched executive discretion a little too far in some directions. Mr. Ballinger did not find authority for having the forests on the Indian reservations managed by officials of another department. Nor did he find warrant in law for protracted withdrawals of public lands from private sale and settlement under the land laws while waiting for Congress to change the statutes. There were certain methods of financing irrigation projects under the Reclamation Service that Mr. Ballinger regarded as illegal. In all these matters Mr. Ballinger states his case exceedingly well. The recommendations in Mr. Ballinger's annual report go as far in the direction of the policies of the conservationists as the most sanguine of the progressives could wish.

The Leader of a Crusade

Yet Mr. Pinchot feels that Mr. Ballinger's real sympathies are with the private development and exploitation of natural resources in the West while his own mission is to make sure that private interests shall not transgress public right and policy. Mr. Pinchot's great work has made a crusader of him and his attitude is necessarily militant. In our judgment he has made a great mistake in not allowing his

PROF. HENRY S. GRAVES, OF THE YALE SCHOOL OF FORESTRY

(Mr. Pinchot's successor as Chief Forester)

official conduct and utterances to be guided by the advice of his friend and superior officer, the President of the United States. But the great work Mr. Pinchot has performed for the country cannot be undone or forgotten. We know Mr. Pinchot to be a devoted public servant. About that there is no question. It does not follow, however, that we must accept Mr. Pinchot's opinion of the infallibility of Glavis, or regard his ability to judge legal facts as better than that of the Attorney-General. Nor must we conclude that Secretary Ballinger, who has always enjoyed a high reputation, is lacking either in conscience or intelligence as a public officer, even though some leaders of the conservation crusade do not trust him. The conservation movement needs Mr. Pinchot and he can probably serve it in private life just as ably as in public office, though most of us who have always been his admirers and supporters were very anxious that he should remain at the head of the Forest Service. As to Mr. Ballinger, there will be nothing that his opponents will be restrained from making public before the Congressional commission of inquiry. The American public does not wish to believe ill of any man who attains the great position of a cabinet officer. Perhaps the greatest tribute that could have been paid to Mr. Pinchot was the prompt selection by President Taft of Mr. Pinchot's own friend and pupil, Henry S. Graves, the head of the Yale Forestry School, to be his successor. We shall all stand firmer than ever for " forestry."

The New Chief Forester

It is not, therefore, to be inferred that the removal of Mr. Pinchot involves any change in the administration of the Forest Service. On the contrary, President Taft has given the country distinctly to understand, from his choice of Mr. Pinchot's successor, that the policy and work of the bureau are to suffer no reversal. The new chief of the service, Prof. Henry S. Graves, left his position as Mr. Pinchot's chief assistant in the old division of forestry to become director of the Yale Forestry School, which has trained so many men for work as Government supervisors of forests throughout the country. Professor Graves, like Mr. Pinchot himself, studied forestry abroad before there were opportunities on this side of the water for technical instruction in forestry. His equipment probably approaches more closely to that of his predecessor than that of any one else available for the office, and since his appointment he has expressed himself as fully in sympathy with the Pinchot program of conservation, which has become the national policy.

Forest Conservation

In the national forestry agitation there is danger that too little thought will be given to the practical and immediate programs of legislation in the different States. It must be remembered that four-fifths of the forests are in the hands of private owners and can be protected only by State laws. Some of the States have already made a good beginning in an attempt to administer effective laws for the prevention of forest fires, but there must be uniformity in such regulations. Legislatures should not stop with fire prevention, however. No thoroughgoing policy of conservation can be put in force until our present taxation system is radically changed. It is idle to go on taxing the standing timber year after year at the same rate as tillable farm lands and expect the owner to refrain from cutting off the trees and thus producing a revenue. The thing to do is to tax land and timber separately and collect the timber tax when the trees are cut off. Students of the subject are agreed that this is a perfectly feasible and rational course, and it would undoubtedly lead to true conservation of timber resources in States where at present the tendency is in the contrary direction. As matters stand, all that mitigates the burden of taxation on our forests is the fact that the general property tax is loosely administered in this country. But whatever system of taxation is adopted should offer positive encouragement to the practice of forestry, instead of standing as an obstruction.

Reform the Tax System

Mr. Charles Lathrop Pack, the forestry expert, in an address at Washington last month, after calling attention to the fact that forestry is now practiced on not more than 1 per cent. of the timber lands privately owned in this country, made the following pertinent observations:

We tax our forests under the general property tax, a practice abandoned long ago by other great nations. In fact, we are the only advanced nation with the crop of standing timber on its annual tax roll. As long as forests are taxed on the basis of an annual crop, the holding of young forests until they mature means financial loss to the owner. Under such conditions the establishment of new forests cannot be expected. I believe that the taxation of forest lands should be based upon the yield, when the timber is cut. The timber should be taxed separately from the land, and only, like other crops, after it is harvested. The land alone should be taxed annually. The tax on the timber itself, when cut, and an annual tax upon the land, exclusive of the timber, is practical, certain, and fair, and well adapted to American conditions of forest investment. It would insure a permanent revenue from the forests, in place of a temporary one. Such a law would be a tremendous improvement over the present system of taxation, which encourages, and even compels, forest destruction.

It is realized that the principles which are here recommended and indorsed by the National Conservation Association, cannot be generally adopted without amendment to the constitutions of many of the States, but a growing public interest in the subject will compel such amendments and open the way for a system of forest taxation which will really encourage the holding of timber and the reforestation of lands otherwise of little economic value. In some of the States steps have already been taken to this end.

As has been well said, "It is better from every side that forest land should yield a moderate tax permanently than that it should yield an excessive revenue temporarily, and then cease to yield at all."

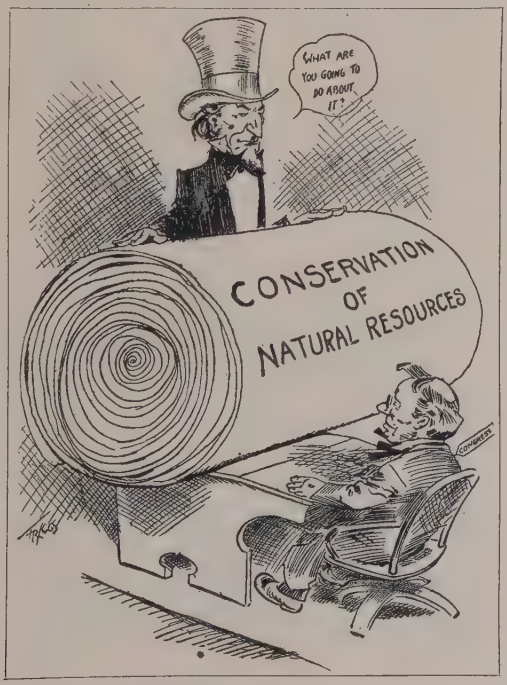
Conservation Commission

Since the first Conservation Commission created by President Roosevelt a number of other bodies having for their object the conservation of our natural resources have come into existence. In order to prevent confusion in the public mind with regard to these organizations and their different functions a few explanations may not be amiss. First in the order of creation came the National Conservation Commission, appointed by President Roosevelt. This was the central of-

ficial body whose purpose was to co-ordinate the work of the various Government offices already engaged in conservation work and to co-operate with the various State conservation commissions appointed by the governors and the conservation committees appointed by the national organizations. This Roosevelt commission was later rendered inoperative by the Tawney amendment to the Sundry Civil bill of March 4, 1909. The Joint Committee on Conservation was established as a result of the conference of governors and national organizations in December, 1908. The object of this committee was to act as a clearing house among the State conservation commissions and other conservation committees with a view to advising each body of action by the others. When the National Conservation Commission was rendered inoperative by the Tawney amendment, the Joint Committee assumed its place as far as was practicable, without, however, having any official character.

Non-Official Bodies

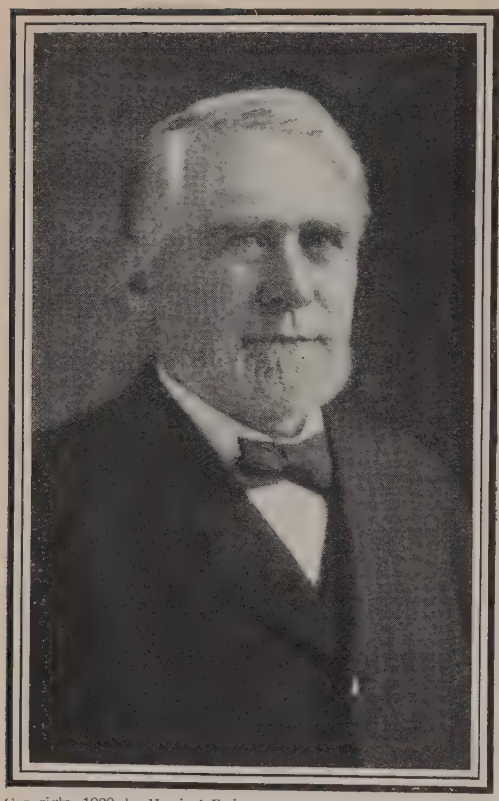
There is also the National Conservation Congress, having for its sole object the holding of a national congress at which all organizations interested in conservation work are to be represented. It is organized on much the same basis as the National Rivers and Harbors Congress and the National Irrigation Congress. The National Conservation Association, of which Mr. Pinchot was last month chosen president, succeeding President Eliot, is an unofficial body, made up of an individual membership, its purpose being the practical application of the conservation principles declared by the governors at their White House conference in May, 1908. These principles have to do with the conservation and proper use of the public lands, waters, forests, and minerals, and the health of the people. Membership in this organization is open to all American citizens, and it is to this association that business men and all other individuals who desire to forward conservation work should apply their energies, for it offers to all individuals a national medium for practical, constructive work.



A CHANCE FOR CONGRESS
From the *Press* (New York)

Probing the Land Questions

The commission to investigate the Ballinger-Pinchot matter consists of twelve members, six from each House. The Senate members were appointed by the Vice-President and are as follows: Senator Nelson, of Minnesota; Senator Root, of New York; Senator Sutherland, of Utah; Senator Flint, of California; Senator Paynter, of Kentucky, and Senator Hughes, of Colorado. The House members, who would ordinarily be appointed by the Speaker, were elected by the House itself, four being Republicans and two Democrats. The list is as follows: Messrs. McCall, of Massachusetts; Olmsted, of Pennsylvania; Denby, of Michigan; Madison, of Kansas; James, of Kentucky, and Graham, of Illinois. The question of allowing Speaker Cannon to appoint the members of this committee provoked a lively debate; and the insurgent Republicans, in conjunction with the Democrats, were able to beat the regulars. The Democrats, who wish campaign material for the Congressional elections this coming autumn, naturally desire to make all they can out of charges against the Republican administration of the Interior Department. The insurgents, on the other hand, are at odds with Speaker Cannon, and were ready to seize an opportunity to attack his prestige. It was pretended, moreover, that he might appoint a committee more favorable to Mr. Ballinger than to Mr. Pinchot. This was a narrow view, because everything in the situation would have compelled the Speaker to appoint just as fair-minded a committee as the House itself would select.



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SENATOR KNUTE NELSON, OF MINNESOTA.

(Chairman of the Ballinger-Pinchot Investigating Committee)

Quality of the Committee

Under the circumstances, it was better for Mr. Ballinger to have the House elect the committee. From President Taft's standpoint, it could make no difference either way. After the House had decided, on very short notice and in the absence of many regulars from the chamber, to elect the House members of the committee, an attempt was made in the Senate to change the situation by stating specifically in the joint resolution that the Senate members were to be named by the Vice-President and the House members by the Speaker. Speaker Cannon, however, did not wish the subject reopened, and the House members were selected in a Republican caucus on the evening of January 19. Of these, Mr. Madison, of Kansas, is a so-called "insurgent" Republican, while Mr. James and Mr. Graham are active and prominent Democrats, who will lose no fair opportunity to bring out any facts that would be valuable to their party in its Congressional campaign. The entire committee is admirable in its personal and political make-up. The Democrats had previously selected Mr. Rainey, of Illinois, together with Mr. James, as their members of the committee; but Mr. Rainey is the member who had made charges against eminent Republicans and against relatives of Presidents Taft and Roosevelt in connection with the purchase of the French Panama Company. Mr. Lloyd, of Missouri, the Republican caucus substitute for Mr. Rainey, having declined to serve on the committee, the choice of the House Democrats fell on Mr. Graham, of Illinois.

Insurgents and Party Recognition

The activity of the Republican insurgents in the House and the approach of a Congressional election have led to a discussion during the past few weeks that has taken on many phases. From the standpoint of the regulars it has seemed rather necessary to define the question, What is a Republican? for the purpose of an approaching campaign that must be fought on party lines. The Republican Congressional Campaign Committee has been inclined to view the insurgent movement with alarm, and to fear lest it should help to bring about a Democratic majority in the

OLLIE D. JAMES, OF KENTUCKY

(One of the Democratic members of the Ballinger-Pinchot Investigating Committee)

next House. Certain pronunciamentos were circulated in the States of the Middle West (from which most of the insurgent Republican Congressmen come) attacking the insurgent movement in the name of the Congressional Campaign Committee. It was asserted that President Taft had known of this advance campaign literature, had given it his approval, and had decided to withdraw appointment patronage from the insurgent members of the House and the so-called "progressive" or insurgent Senators.

Mr. Taft and the Factions

For several days the whole country was permitted to believe that President Taft had actually decided to carry out this course,—for instance, that he would not consult Senators Dolliver and Cummins in the matter of Iowa appointments, unless the Senators should accept instructions as to the positions they would take and the votes they would cast in the course of their work in the Senate chamber. If this had been true it would have been a political blunder on Mr. Taft's part, because the so-called insurgents in both Houses were original Taft men and have all along desired to work with the President as fully as possible. They have at times felt themselves to be better Taft men than the President himself. Naturally enough, the President, as official head of the party, has felt it necessary to work as well as possible, for the sake of results, with the regularly constituted party leadership in both Houses. The insurgents, on the other hand, have not

"HANG ON TO THE LIFE PRESERVER, AND I'LL PULL YOU BOTH IN!"

From the *Press* (New York)

felt it necessary to make compromises, and have been at liberty to stand squarely for their own views and principles, even against the Aldrich leadership of the Senate and the Cannon leadership of the House. Mr. Taft subsequently denied that he had any intention to use patronage as a club against the insurgents. He let it be known that a legislative program based upon what he himself, the President, regarded as party pledges and duties would be for his own purposes a sufficient criterion of party orthodoxy. He declined to identify himself in any way with factional differences in either House. This, of course, is the proper position for the President to take. For their own purposes the members of Congress from Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Kansas are accountable to their own constituents. The upper half of the Mississippi Valley is quite competent to write its own definition of Republicanism, and it will not be dictated to by Rhode Island or Maine. But Mr. Taft has an equal right to use his own means to ascertain some things about which the party, in all its factions and in all sections of the country, might well agree upon. And he is justified in trying to bring about harmony through the support of such a program. There is no wide difference of feeling among those making up the rank and file of the party. Public sentiment in both parties is strongly "progressive."

IN FOR A THOROUGH SCRUBBING!

From the *Herald* (Washington)

As to Speaker Cannon

Meanwhile, there has been an extraordinary amount of advertising given to what has come to be termed "Cannonism"; and associated with the attacks upon Cannonism there have been a good many personal attacks upon Speaker Cannon himself. The Hon. Joseph G. Cannon was born at Guilford, N. C., May 7, 1836, and is therefore almost seventy-four years old. He comes of old Quaker stock, and his family, while he was still a boy, made their way to Illinois, having first settled for a time in Indiana. Mr. Cannon entered public life at his adopted home in Danville, Ill., nearly fifty years ago. If elected again in November, and his health is spared, he will have served forty consecutive years in the House of Representatives at the end of the Sixty-second Congress, excepting for one brief term when a Democrat captured his district. He is now serving his fourth term as Speaker. Through a number of Congresses he was chairman of the great Committee on Appropriations. In his responsibilities as "watch-dog of the Treasury" he formed the habit of great care to prevent loose and improper appropriations of public money. He learned to say "no" in a quick, firm way, and to stick to it with a courage that often made him extremely unpopular. Not only did he antagonize those who had private motives, but even more frequently those whose zeal for some special public cause or interest made them impatient of obstacles and ready to ascribe wrong motives to public men who did not yield to their earnest persuasions.

His Methods as Speaker

As Speaker of the House, under the existing rules, Mr. Cannon has had to bear the brunt of many decisions which a man of a different stamp would have tried to dodge. We who publish newspapers and magazines were trying hard some two or three years ago to get white paper and wood pulp put on the free list in a special bill, while leaving the rest of the tariff undisturbed. We held that prices had been arbitrarily advanced through the action of trusts and monopolistic agreements. President Roosevelt favored our contention, while Mr. Cannon opposed it. Some of the publishers thought Mr. Cannon was influenced by the trusts and corporations. As a matter of fact, he took the ground that the tariff could not at that time be revised piecemeal, and that the newspaper and periodical publishers should invoke the application of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. From his standpoint Mr. Cannon was not to be blamed. He did what he believed to be his duty in a system of party government under which he was charged with great responsibilities. Yet such things make enemies.

THE REAL OBJECT OF THE INSURGENTS' ATTACKS WAS SPEAKER CANNON—From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

Another Instance

For some years this magazine, together with many other organs of public opinion, associations, and men in public and private life, has advocated a national forest reserve in the lower Appalachian Mountains and another in the White Mountains of New England. Mr. Cannon has opposed the granting of money out of the National Treasury for the purchase of forest lands in the old States of the East. Much of the opposition to Mr. Cannon in the Eastern States, on the part of those who have a zeal for "conservation," is due to his attitude on this subject. Yet it is to be remembered that Mr. Weeks, of Massachusetts, as chairman of the committee having the Appalachian and White Mountain forest-reserve bill in charge, not only reported the measure favorably to the House but succeeded in passing it and sending it up to the Senate in the face of the Speaker's well-known opposition. And Mr. Weeks, who is now chairman of the Post-Office Committee, where Speaker Cannon put him to succeed Mr. Overstreet, of Indiana

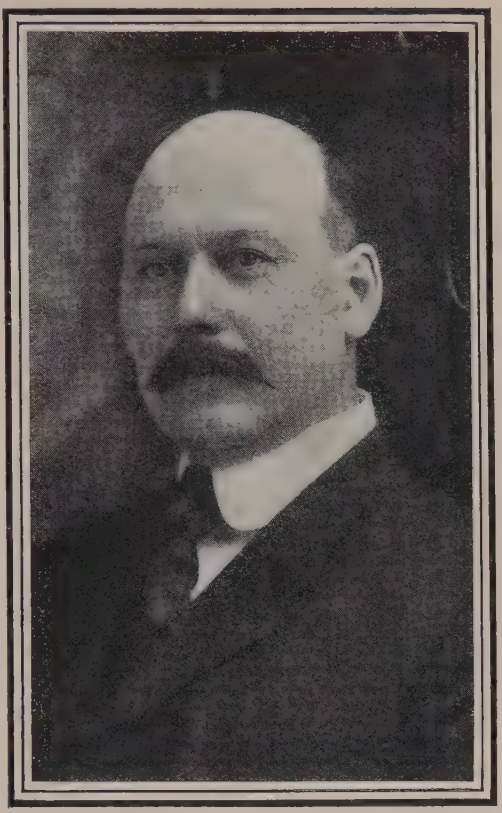
(whose seat was captured by a Democrat), is ready to testify to the entire fairness of the Speaker as respects the forest-reserve bill and many other things.

An "Old-School" Politician

Mr. Cannon undoubtedly has his full share of faults and human frailties. He has many of the virtues and some of the faults that belonged to a period of intense partisanship in our politics, in which the spoils system played a large part, during the twenty-five years following the Civil War. His code of ethics permits him to be more indulgent to his friends than to his enemies. He would risk something of his own reputation, for example, to help Lucius Littauer keep a high tariff duty on gloves, in view of Littauer's political activities in support of Mr. Cannon's prestige and authority as Speaker. But it is to be remembered that he would not do this unless he were fully persuaded that the Littauer schedule would develop an American industry and benefit the country. The power of the Speaker is so stupendous,—not only as respects the fate of pending measures but also as respects the fortunes of aspiring statesmen seeking committee appointments,—that only a very remarkable man could hope to survive the antagonisms of even two successive terms as Speaker, and win the high honor for a third time. Yet Mr. Cannon has won it for a fourth time. And this is a very remarkable tribute to the belief of Congress and of the country in his honesty, and in other qualities, especially those of experience and of decisiveness, that give him eminence. But the order of things has changed very greatly; and it would be far from strange if the next House, even though Republican, should choose to pass the Speakership on to a younger man, while also depriving the Speaker of some of that arbitrary power that "Uncle Joe" has been permitted to exercise over four successive Congresses.

What is "Cannonism?"

And this brings us, from a survey of Mr. Cannon's career and personality, to some remarks upon what is called "Cannonism." This, it should be said, is quite a different subject. A fair definition of "Cannonism" would be something like this: "The present rules of the House of Representatives and the established customs under which the Speaker exercises the powers that the rules confer upon him." Under the rules, the Speaker appoints the committees. Bills as introduced are referred by the Speaker to the committees he deems appropriate. If the Speaker does not favor savings banks, for example, he can arrange things so that it would be exceedingly difficult to get a savings-bank bill reported to the House and put upon its passage, even though a majority of all the members of the House might wish to vote in favor of postal savings banks. It is true that at a certain hour on a certain day a private member might, under suspension of rules, rise in his place in order to offer a motion discharging the Committee on Post-Offices from further consideration of the savings-bank bill and ordering it reported to the House. But the Speaker, under the present system, may refuse to recognize the member rising in his place until he is informed for what purpose the member rises. And if he does not approve of the purpose, his eye may fail to see the member and he may recognize somebody else demanding the attention of the Chair



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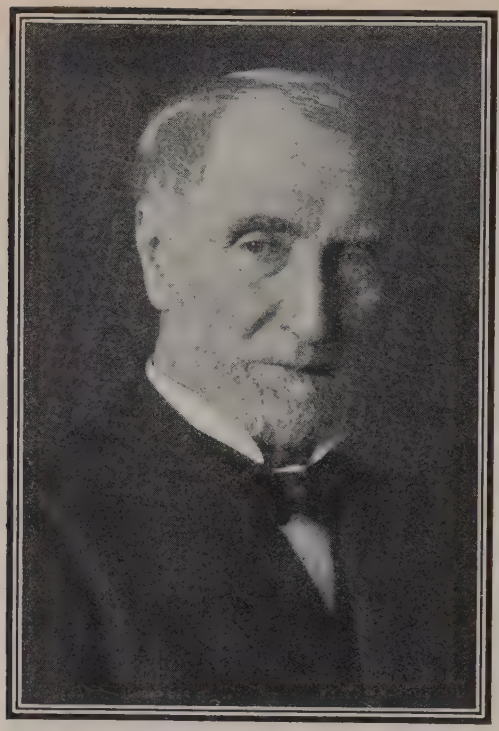
HON. JOHN W. WEEKS, OF MASSACHUSETTS

(Now chairman of the House Committee on Post Offices, and typical of the modern business talent that nowadays serves the country in Congress)



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HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON

(Speaker of the House)

whose purposes are without guile. If the aggrieved member should propose to appeal to the House he would fail again, because there had been no decision of the Chair from which an appeal could be taken.

The Hous Rules

The rules of the House are very much the same as they were in the days of Speaker Reed, when they were devised by able men to prevent filibustering and obstruction and to enable the House to do business. The Committee on Rules is very close to the Speaker, and in any given case this committee brings in a special rule fixing the time when a final vote shall be taken, prescribing the quantity of time allowed for debate, and duly apportioning such time among the debaters pro and con. The House is, of course, its own master in the last resort. A controlling majority of the membership can at any time, by acting firmly together, bring about any changes it may desire in the rules, depose one Speaker and appoint another, deprive the Speaker of the power of appointing committees, or, in short, order its own affairs in any way that it pleases. It makes its own system.

Will the System Remain?

It is rather slovenly and futile,—and it is also somewhat cowardly and ignorant,—to blame the Hon. Joseph G. Cannon because of all the sins of omission or commission attributable to the House of Representatives. Members who do not like Mr. Cannon as Speaker have the fullest right to oppose him, and those who do not like the rules as they stand are justified in fighting the rules. Mr. Cannon is conspicuous because he is at the head of a system which he did not create. The next House of Representatives will not be Republican by a large working majority. It will be more evenly divided, and it may be controlled by the Democrats. If the Democrats control it, we shall see what they will do with the rules. They fought the Reed rules bitterly and denounced Speaker Reed as a czar; but when they got control of the House themselves and elected Mr. Crisp as Speaker they kept the Reed rules and enforced them just as strenuously. If the Hon. Champ Clark should become Speaker, he and his Democratic colleagues might find it very convenient to maintain the Cannonistic system, although they would naturally seek for it what they would deem a more euphemistic name. They will not be tender of the enemy.

Congress and Its Character

The Congress of the United States is an industrious, able, hard-working body of men, whose talents and efforts are not fully appreciated by the country. There are some men in the Senate and probably a few in the House who

TIME TO "SAW WOOD"

From the *Herald* (Washington)

ought to be relegated to private life. The chief test of a public man is his public-mindedness. Where men are ready to sacrifice public interests for private, selfish, mercenary ends, they are contemptible figures in public life and should be whipped into retirement. This magazine has never had any apologies or excuses to make for Congressmen or other public officials of that type. But there has arisen a reckless fashion in certain quarters of imputing bad motives to public men on insufficient evidence. A certain respect is due to high office in itself. A great branch of our National Government is impugned as a whole, when mud is thrown in the face of the man whom it has chosen term after term to fill its one post of commanding authority. In no period since the foundation of the Government, more than a hundred and twenty years ago, has there been so high an average of intelligence and honesty in our public life at Washington as at the present time.

The Trace of the "Muck-raker"

The so-called "muck-rakers" have sought to find blameworthy things, and have thrown these into high lights for sensational purposes. If they had sought to find praiseworthy things also, and had then endeavored to strike the just balance, they would have created a very different impression upon the public mind. Truth, of course, will usually prevail in the end. It is a very serious matter to speak evil of dignitaries, or to criticise and condemn the character and the motives of those who have built for themselves positions in public life. Not only should the journalist or magazine writer make sure of his facts before he prints aspersions upon public men, but he should also search his own heart to make sure that he has the pure motives of a citizen trying to do his duty, even though painful and disagreeable. The constructive processes of reform are usually more valuable than the destructive. The dishonest public man, and the journalism of detraction are both of them great evils. It is an open question which is the worse. Newspapers and periodicals are the chief purveyors of ordinary information about public affairs. And in the long run the power for usefulness of our American press must be in proportion to its fairness, justice, and diligent search for the real facts. The so-called "muck-rakers" have had little to do either with the reform of our city governments or the reform of our national politics. They have usually trailed along in the rear, stumbling belatedly upon scandals already lived down, and depicting them with a horrid eagerness and a total disregard for proportion and perspective,—all for the misguidance of untrained readers who ought to have been told the rounded, symmetrical truth.

Mr. Taft's Greatest Message

On January 7 Congress received President Taft's special message discussing proposed changes in the laws governing railroads and industrial corporations. The message is an elaborate document that has created a widespread discussion because it involves possible changes of the most profound character. It begins with the recommendation of a United States Court of Commerce, to be composed of five federal circuit judges and to be given jurisdiction in a variety of cases arising under the Interstate Commerce laws and having to do especially with the regulation of railroads. Such cases can now be brought in any of the United States courts. To create the separate Commerce Court would bring about a better concentrated and more expeditious enforcement of the Government's control over the instrumentalities of national trade. In connection with this court an assistant Attorney-General, acting under the direction of the Attorney-General on behalf of the Department of Justice, would represent the Government and would relieve the Interstate Commerce Commission of a part of the work that now devolves upon it when its decisions are appealed to the courts.

Changes In Railway Regulation

The next recommendation in the message has to do with pooling arrangements. The President says that he sees no reason why agreements between carriers should not be permitted covering such subjects as freight classifications and rates, and passenger fares, provided copies of such agreements be filed with the Interstate Commerce Commission. It is suggested that the Commission have full power to pass upon the classifications made by railroads for the purpose of fixing rates, and also that better opportunity should be given to the shipper to ascertain the legal rate that he is to be charged. It is recommended also that the Interstate Commerce Commission be empowered to investigate proposed changes of rates, and to suspend increases for as much as sixty days while looking into their reasonableness. Mr. Taft thinks that the shipper should have a right to choose which one of two or three established through routes shall

be made use of in the movement of his freight. All these matters involve very material increases in the power of the Interstate Commerce Commission to regulate railroads in their dealings with shippers.

Railroad Stock Issues

A very important section of the message has to do with prohibiting railroads from acquiring stock or in other ways getting interest in or control of competing lines. Mr. Taft advocates such a prohibition. He would not, however, attack existing relationships, but merely regulate future action. Furthermore, wherever, at the date of the passage of such an act, a corporation already owns as much as half of the stock of another company, he would not prohibit the absorption of the remaining half. Mr. Taft advises the passage of a law requiring that interstate carriers shall not henceforth issue stocks or bonds except in return for their par value in cash. He would have the Interstate Commerce Commission approve of the amount of stock and bonds to be issued. These proposals are, of course, subject to various modifications in detail. There are other suggestions, some of them intended to give the Interstate Commerce Commission greater authority to protect trainmen in pursuit of their hazardous work by the use of improved appliances. Taken as a whole, the President's policy regarding further steps in the regulation and control of railroads by the Government, and in the settling of disputes arising in the exercise of such control, is progressive, far-reaching, and well worked out from the legal standpoint.

Trusts and How to Treat Them

So much for the first half of the message. The second half deals with the Anti-Trust law. Here we have a very deliberate and highly judicial analysis of the development of great corporations, the tendency toward monopoly, and the aims and meaning of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. The object of that law, Mr. Taft says, was to suppress business abuses. "It was not to interfere with a great volume of capital which, concentrated under one organization, reduced the cost of production and made its profit thereby, and took no advantage of its size by methods akin to duress to stifle competition with it." What Mr. Taft seems to be giving us is that full and reasonable interpretation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law that we ought to have had long ago, but that in fact the courts have never given us. Mr. Taft seems to be hopeful that the statute as it stands may cease to be a menace to legitimate business, through established interpretations by the courts that will make corporations quite safe if behaving themselves well, while putting in peril those that exercise monopolistic power oppressively. It is not easy to accept Mr. Taft's reasoning along this line.

Federal Incorporation

Mr. Taft proceeds,—after this judicial argument in favor of letting the Sherman Anti-Trust law remain as it is,—to propose his remedy for the existing situation. He would provide for a method of granting federal incorporation to the good trusts. That is to say, he would substitute for the present method (of examining into the affairs of industrial corporations by the Department of Commerce and Labor) a plan by which great businesses would willingly subject themselves to government regulation under the terms of a national incorporation act. Mr. Taft proceeds to argue very ably in favor of a law providing for the voluntary federal incorporation of enterprises engaged in interstate commerce. In our opinion his arguments are convincing. The message concludes with a statement that the Attorney-General, at Mr. Taft's suggestion, had prepared a bill providing such a scheme.

The Wickersham Bill

Secretary Nagel had co-operated with Mr. Wickersham; Senator Root and other legal advisers of the President had been consulted; and the bill appeared in the newspapers a few days after the President's message. The matter is one of such importance that a protracted and general discussion must be expected before such a bill can become a law. We shall have ample opportunity, therefore, in the pages of the REVIEW, to revert again and at more length to this topic. The bill makes it the duty of the Commissioner of Corporations to examine into all the preliminaries in the case of every application, and after due inquiry to issue a certificate of incorporation. It contains restrictions regarding stock issues in order to insure the sound and conservative financial character of every certificate-holder. Every company thus incorporated must file an annual report, covering specified matters. There is a clause in the bill which authorizes any federal corporation to hold a controlling interest in the stock of kindred State corporations under certain restrictions. The ex-

tent to which this would justify a great holding company like that of the Standard Oil of New Jersey has naturally been discussed in the newspapers. It should be remarked that this clause is in no way essential to the scheme as a whole, and it would naturally be made the subject of thorough debate in Congress before acceptance. In other words, the precise powers to be conferred upon industrial corporations chartered by the federal Government are a matter quite incidental to the project itself. The Wickersham draft for a federal incorporation act is a noteworthy piece of constructive work in law and government, and Mr. Taft's message on railway and anti-trust laws must be assigned the highest place in his achievements hitherto as lawyer and statesman. He is justified in asking the strong support of the Republican party in both Houses of Congress for a program which he has endeavored to work out in accordance with the platform of his party and in pursuance of his leading addresses and utterances ever since he became the party's candidate for the Presidency more than a year and a half ago. Yet it will be very difficult in the present session of Congress to complete any important railroad legislation and more difficult to secure the enactment of the Wickersham bill for federal incorporation.

A House of Governors

As an outcome of the now historic conference of State executives called together at Washington in May, 1908, by President Roosevelt, there assembled at the federal capital last month the Governors of thirty States, meeting as an independent, deliberative body for the purpose of "initiating, inspiring, and influencing uniform laws." While this congress, which soon came to be known as the "House of Governors," had no relation to the National Government, and dealt almost wholly with matters of State legislation, it was addressed by President Taft and was a thoroughly national gathering so far as representation was concerned. It would have probably been impossible to assemble such a body at any other point than the city of Washington. The desirability of securing uniform legislation on such topics as Marriage and Divorce, Pure Food, Insurance, Extradition, Child Labor, Direct Primaries, Convict Labor, Prison Reform, Inheritance Tax, and Conservation of Natural Resources is everywhere admitted. It is believed that the Governors, by influencing legislation in their respective States, can do more than any other one agency to bring about uniformity in such legislation. If any attempt were to be made to secure these reforms through the action of Congress amendments to the federal Constitution would be required, and recent experience with the income tax shows that such procedure would be delayed almost interminably. Whether or not the results of this recent meeting of the House of Governors come immediately into view, it is certain that the discussion of so many topics of common interest in so public a manner is likely to have its influence on the legislation of many States, and such influence will be strongly in the direction of uniformity.

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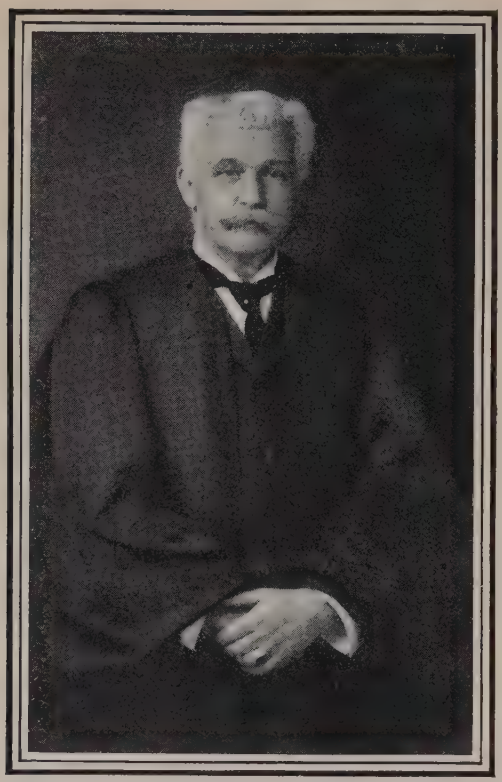
ATTORNEY-GENERAL WICKERSHAM

(From a recent snap-shot)



HON. ALFRED C. COXE

(Chief-Justice of new Customs Court)

The Civ Federation

The meeting of the National Civic Federation at Washington simultaneously with the conference of Governors was important in that it gave opportunity for the expression of opinion by labor leaders and the employers of labor on such vital questions as the proposition to compensate employees for injuries. It was recommended to the House of Governors and to the State legislatures of the country that workmen's compensation acts, fair to the employer and to the employee, and just to the State, be uniformly substituted for the present system of employer's liability for injuries received in the course of employment. The Federation also adopted resolutions favoring the adoption of uniform laws for the protection of children employed in factories, favoring a uniform insurance code for all the States, and strongly endorsing the conservation of forests and water powers. Senator Root made the interesting suggestion that a commissioners' court be created to draft uniform laws. The Federation authorized the appointment of a committee on legal procedure.

The New Customs Court

Early last month President Taft nominated the members of the Customs Court authorized by the Aldrich-Payne Tariff law. The Chief Justice of this new court will be the Hon. Alfred C. Coxe, of Utica, N. Y., United States Circuit Judge for the Second Judicial Circuit. The other members of the court will be: Marion De Vries, of California, who for the past ten years has been a member of the Board of General Appraisers of Customs at the port of New York; William H. Hunt, of Montana, United States District Judge for the District of Montana, and formerly Governor of Porto Rico; Gen. James F. Smith, of California, formerly Governor-General of the Philippines, and O. M. Barber, a lawyer of Bennington, Vt. Decisions of contested cases in the collection of customs duties have been in great confusion for several years. It has been exceedingly difficult for the law officers of the Government to obtain consistent interpretations of the various provisions of the tariff law as applied to specific articles. It is believed that by concentrating the responsibility for deciding such cases in a single judicial body much of the confusion that arises from these variations of interpretation will be removed. The new court will decide all contested cases without appeal, except on questions of constitutionality.

Inter-State Park Projects

Perhaps the most interesting paragraphs in Governor Hughes' message to the New York Legislature last month were those that announced the Harriman bequest to the State of lands for a State park, and of $1,000,000 of the Harriman fortune to be used for the purchase of other land adjacent. The 10,000 acres which the late railway financier desired to bequeath to the State is situated a few miles west of the Hudson River. The money added to the bequest for the purpose of purchasing adjacent land, together with a fund of $1,625,000 given by wealthy citizens of New York, will make possible the acquisition of large areas between the Harriman estate and the Hudson River. This latter gift to the State is conditional, however, on the transfer to another site of the State prison, which the State had planned to place near Highland Lake, and on the appropriation by the State of New Jersey, in which a part of the park is to be located, of money for its share of the cost. There is already a public reservation, known as Palisades Park, extending along the river to the southward.

MAYOR GAYNOR AND HIS FAMILY

(From a photograph taken last month in the Mayor's office, City Hall, New York)

This reservation was established by the joint action of the States of New York and New Jersey. The Highlands of the Hudson Forest Reserve stretches northward from Stony Point to Cornwall, and westward for a considerable distance. Thus the union of these projects will give to New York and New Jersey a unique and invaluable public park, guarded from encroachment for all time, and providing a recreation ground for all who wish to use it. Mr. George W. Perkins, who has been identified from the beginning with the admirable work of the Palisades Park Commission, is entitled to great credit for the successful combination of these three projects in one. It only remains for the legislatures of New York and New Jersey to give their sanction to the plan.

Mayor Gaynor's Good Beginning

The appointments made by Mayor Gaynor, of New York, during his first month in office have more than fulfilled the promises that were made for his administration by his warmest friends and admirers. Time was when it was counted a great thing in New York if a mayor's appointees had even negative virtues. We have now, it seems, reached a stage of advancement when merely negative qualities no longer suffice. It is not enough that the head of a city department shall refrain from graft and other forms of flagrant iniquity while in office. Thanks to the educational campaign conducted by the Bureau of Municipal Research and other agencies, the public is beginning to demand some evidence of fitness for office beyond the customary certificate of good character that a man's friends are always ready to give him. We now ask what a man knows about a particular job and what he can do if assigned to it. This test, which we label "efficiency" for lack of a better term, might be applied to the various commissioners and bureau chiefs named by Mayor Gaynor since January 1 with gratifying results. The appointment of Dr. E. J. Lederle as head of the Health Department; of Mr. Henry S. Thompson as Commissioner of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity, with Dr. Edward W. Bemis as Deputy Commissioner; of Mr. Charles B. Stover as Park

MR. JOHN F. FITZGERALD
(Mayor-elect of Boston)

Commissioner, of Mr. Archibald R. Watson as Corporation Counsel, and the reappointment of Mr. Lawson Purdy as Tax Commissioner, recognize in each case the demonstrated fitness of the municipal expert for duties that only the expert can thoroughly understand or satisfactorily perform. Professor Bemis, as head of the Cleveland Water Department, made for himself a reputation as an administrator that caused his services to be sought far and wide by cities requiring expert advice in the management of municipal undertakings. Such men are rare in this country, but Mayor Gaynor has enlisted a notably large group of them in the business of administering New York City for the coming four years.

The Boston City Election

The municipal election held in the city of Boston on January 11 was the most exciting in the history of the city. In the first place the election was conducted under novel conditions, all of the candidates having been put in nomination by petition instead of by party caucus. Former Mayor John F. Fitzgerald was elected by a small plurality over James J. Storrow, the candidate chosen by the framers of the new city charter to lead the reform movement. The two other candidates in the field, Mayor George A. Hibbard and Nathaniel H. Taylor, each polled an insignificant number of votes. Fitzgerald had the support of the old Democratic organization in Boston, while Storrow, although a Democrat, was generally indorsed by the friends of good government irrespective of party affiliations. While the Mayoralty contest to a certain extent dwarfed other features of the election, it would be a great mistake to infer from the results that the cause of municipal reform suffered permanent defeat. As was pointed out by the newspapers on the morning after the election, the new City Council of nine members, which replaces the old Council of eighty-eight, will be controlled

MR. JAMES J. STORROW, OF BOSTON
(Leading opponent of Mr. Fitzgerald)

by members who were nominated by the Municipal League. Furthermore, the men whom the new Mayor is to name as members of his departments must be competent to gain the approval of the State Civil Service Commission as experts in their respective lines of duty. While the Mayor will have new power over the budget and the city appropriations, his acts and those of his subordinates will be subject at all times to the supervision and investigation of a finance commission appointed by the Governor of Massachusetts. Mayor Fitzgerald has the opportunity, during the coming four years, to give Boston an administration that will forever discredit the charges of graft and favoritism that were so freely uttered during the campaign for his election. He is pledged to give the charter amendments a fair trial.

The Increased Cost of Living

To this issue of the REVIEW three articles have been contributed dealing with the increased cost of living and its probable causes. The subject is engaging the attention of students and laymen all over the world, for the phenomenon is a world-wide one, but more particularly in the United States, because the increase has been more radical here. In both the Senate and the House of Representatives resolutions were introduced, in January, for the appointment of Congressional committees to investigate the reasons for the increase. Many Congressmen feel the question keenly and personally when they find their salaries of $7500 purchasing no more now than the salaries of $5000 purchased ten years ago. The Department of Agriculture is conducting an investigation of its own into the rapid and great increase in the price of foods. In the latter part of March there will be held a national conference at Syracuse, N. Y., of various commercial bodies to discuss the disturbing tendency toward higher and higher prices. In a recent symposium in the *Journal of Commerce,* American professors of political economy and others gave their interpretation of the fundamental causes of the great rise in the prices of rent, clothing, and food during the past ten years, and with one exception these writers attributed the higher prices to the fundamental fact of the enormous increase in the supply of gold, which, with the attendant, and not less important, factor of the velocity of money circulation, is discussed so clearly by Professor Fisher in this issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

A Check in Gold Output

In this article Professor Fisher gives his opinion that this great increase in the current yearly additions to the gold supply of the world will continue for several decades, and it has generally been assumed by recent writers on the subject that we need not look for any help in the dilemma from any immediate slackening in gold production. But there are others who are becoming impressed by certain physical facts of the Transvaal mines, which have done most to inflate suddenly the world's gold supply, facts which may promise some let-up, in the not distant future, in the "flood of gold." The important physical fact in this connection is that the outcropping main gold reefs of the Witwatersrand gold district covered a small area, and that they are being worked out and abandoned. There is still a vast amount of gold to be mined in the deep-level works, but this deeper-lying metal offers much less profit in the working, even with the vastly improved modern methods of mining, than the rich surface reefs gave, and many think the deepening will not be extended in activity, and even that activity may be abated. It is highly interesting in this connection to see that December, 1909, showed for the first time in many years a falling off in Transvaal gold production, as compared with previous months of the year. This in the face of the fact that December figures of South African gold production are always swelled, in proportion to other months, by the "clean-up" of small unreported amounts mined during the first eleven months of the year. December, 1909, showed not only less than other months of the year, but over 56,000 ounces less than December, 1908. The entire output for 1909 was 7,275,113 ounces, a gain of 222,496 over 1908; this is less than the gains of recent years.

The Automobile in 1910

This is the season of the year when the manufacturers of automobiles and their "accessories" hold exhibitions in the great cities of the country, to introduce the cars and equipment they propose to sell to the public in the course of the new year. New York City has just had its two "shows" in January, with an amount of enthusiasm and success, gauged by attendance and in immediate sales, that has never before been approached. It was truly a remarkable exhibition of the enterprise of American engineers and manufacturers, to anyone who remembers the per-

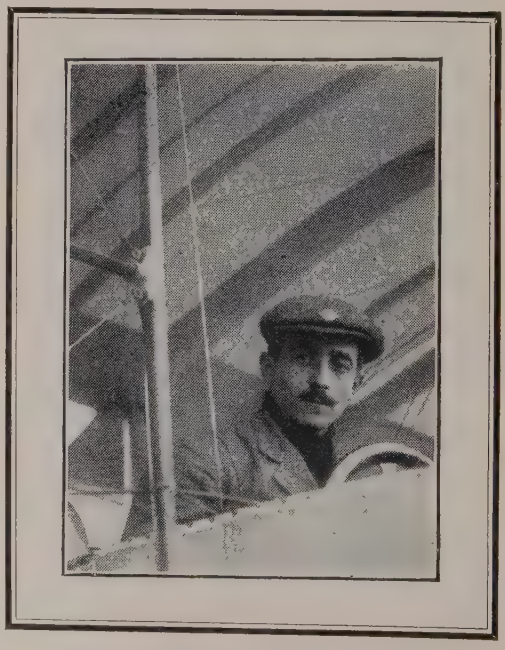
verse and expensive machines turned out in this country even five or six years ago. We present in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS two concise articles telling of the present magnitude of the industry of making automobiles and explaining the value, absolute and compared to the car of five years ago, of the typical effective machine which can now be purchased for $1500 or thereabouts. It is stated with truth that this $1500 car of to-day, possible for the purse of the doctor, the lawyer, and the average business man, is decidedly more reliable, economical, comfortable, and handsome than the $5000 car of five years ago. It is America's triumph in automobile-building. It is true, too, that there have been great improvements in the higher-priced cars, and there will always be people who have the means and the enthusiasm for automobiling, considered as a sport, to make a market for the $4000 and $5000 cars, with their grace, comfort, mechanical refinements, long life, and high power.

The Economical Light Car

At the two "shows" in New York there were exhibited over two hundred cars ranging in price from $485 to $7000. All but two were gasoline-driven, and all but one had the water system of cooling the engine. The average horse-power was about 26. To-day a "little car" is anything up to 20 horse-power; a medium heavy car goes to 35 horse-power, and the heavy cars run from 35 to 90 horse-power. A light car, light in weight as well as in horse-power, is very much more economical over the year's use than a heavy one, at least in inverse proportion to the square of the weight difference. In other words, a 20 horse-power car well made will cost to operate not one-half, but less than one-fourth, of what a 40 horse-power car will cost,—this difference being chiefly due to the more rapid wear of more costly tires on the heavy cars. The tremendous figures of production of automobiles given by Mr. West in this issue show how soon the average citizen through the Middle West and West has found out these facts. Seven-eighths or more of the 160,000 cars that will be sold in 1910 will be light cars, and a large majority of them will be manufactured and sold west of the Alleghany Mountains. Thousands of these passenger cars will be used for business as well as pleasure, by physicians, farmers, real estate operators, and salesmen.

The Los Angeles Aviation Meet

The enterprising city of Los Angeles conducted the first important American aviation meet on January 10-20. Liberal cash prizes drew to the contests many American experts and famous foreigners. Practically every type of flying craft was represented. From 25,000 to 60,000 people watched the trials with great interest each day. Some remarkable flights were accomplished and a number of records established. Louis Paulhan, the daring Frenchman, made many thrilling and spectacular flights, and proved to be the idol of the meet. He captured the record for height by reaching an altitude of over 4000 feet, and his other achievements included a cross-country flight of 21 miles with his wife and short trips with other passengers, on one occasion going out over the waters of the Pacific Ocean. The American expert, Glenn H. Curtiss, succeeded in making a new world's record of 55 miles an hour with a passenger. He also made a record for quick starting in 6 2-5 seconds, and accomplished the shortest record run on the ground before rising. Many other balloon and aeroplane flights, though not remarkable as changing records, lent interest to the occasion and contributed to make this American aviation meet a notable success. In France, Louis Delagrange, one of the ablest and best known of



LOUIS PAULHAN
(The daring French aviator)

French aviators, made a notable flight of 124 miles at the rate of 49 miles an hour on December 30 last. Five days later, at Bordeaux, he met his death through the breaking of one of the wings of his aeroplane. Delagrange's death is the fourth that has taken place among aviators in four months, the others having been the Frenchmen Lefebvre and Captain Ferber and a Spaniard named Fernandez. The recent achievements in aerial navigation, both at Los Angeles and elsewhere, will be found chronologically recorded on page 162.

The Verdict Against Dr. Cook

That Dr. Frederick A. Cook was the victim of an hallucination with regard to the North Pole seems the only hypothesis that fits the facts of the great Arctic controversy as they have now come out. Last month we noted the adverse decision of the commission appointed by the University of Copenhagen to examine the notes and memoranda submitted to them by Dr. Cook's secretary. In this data, which consisted of a typewritten copy of the explorer's account of the North Pole journey and the typewritten copy of entries in his notebook covering the period from March 18 to June 13, 1908, the time in which he claims to have journeyed to the Pole and back, the commission found no evidence sufficient to warrant the belief that Dr. Cook actually reached the Pole. The original notebook of the explorer, which reached Copenhagen on the first of the year, brought to London, it was reported, by Mrs. Cook, was submitted on January 4 to the commission. This also was inspected by the examiners and reported to contain "nothing to alter its judgment." The notebook, the examiners say in their verdict made public on January 19, contains various alterations, but there is nothing to show whether the changes were made with the purpose of deceiving. At the same time that these facts were published it was announced that the Explorers' Club of America had decided against all of Dr. Cook's claims to have made the ascent of Mt. McKinley. Dr. Cook himself disappeared from public view soon after the departure of his secretary, Mr. Walter Lounsdale, for Copenhagen with the typewritten reports of his observations. Up to the middle of last month his secretary reports that brief messages had been received from Dr. Cook at widely separated points in Europe, but the exact addresses of the explorer and Mrs. Cook were not revealed. The explorer was at one time reported to be resting in a German sanitarium.

Was the Explorer Self-Deluded?

Whether or not Dr. Cook ever reached the North Pole, a question upon which the civilized world has had honest differences of opinion from the time of the announcement of his claim, there can, it seems, be no final difference on the question of the genuineness of the explorer's own belief that he had been there. Every competent observer who met him personally has maintained that he is quite incapable, morally or intellectually, of concocting a colossal scheme to hocus the entire world. Throughout the whole affair there is no evidence of any plan to impose on the credulity of mankind. It seems probable that Dr. Cook actually attained a very high Northern latitude, perhaps came within a shorter distance of the North Pole than he will ever be credited for. It is sincerely to be regretted that he did not, upon his return to civilization, frankly state his actual achievement. This was probably in itself noteworthy enough to entitle him to honor and financial return, sufficient, perhaps, to compensate him for the privations he underwent. It may be that his lonely imprisonment during the six months' Arctic night after his return from his farthest North affected his memory and judgment. Throughout the whole discussion the attitude and conduct of the University of Copenhagen and the Danish people have been worthy of sincere respect and admiration. They accepted with dignified enthusiasm and at its face value the claim of an American explorer against whose record they had no suspicion. All through the trying period of discussion, so often bitter and unfair, they maintained the dignified reserve that properly characterizes all sincere and honest folk while awaiting a decision. But when the necessary evidence was not produced they did not permit their desire or their preceding action to prevent a decision in strict accord with scientific truth.

Now for the South Pole

Meanwhile the attention of scientists and explorers is being directed to the Antarctic region by the announcement that two important expeditions will at once proceed completely to conquer the South Pole. Lieutenant Shackelton, who in January of last year, it will be remembered, penetrated to within one hundred

geographical miles of the southernmost point of our globe, has decided upon another Antarctic expedition. It is announced also that the British Government has granted $100,000 to Capt. Robert F. Scott to fit out an expedition to the south polar regions. It is Captain Scott's intention to leave England for the South some time during the course of the coming summer.

The Situation in Nicaragua

The resignation of President Zelaya from the head of the Nicaraguan Republic (on December 16, as we noted last month) was followed almost immediately by the flight of that statesman to a refuge in Mexico. The Nicaraguan Congress than proceeded to elect as his successor Dr. José Madriz. Although Señor Zelaya denies that he has resigned, declaring that he has relinquished the executive office only temporarily, his departure from the country has been generally taken to mean that the one-time despot is finally out of Nicaraguan politics. Dr. Madriz, although officially known as only the de facto President, began at once to administer the government. One of his first public utterances after the usual formal assurances of a fair and impartial administration was the admission that the executions of Cannon and Groce, the two Americans who were put to death by Zelaya for participating in the revolution, were illegal. Dr. Madriz admitted also that the resentment felt by the Government and people of the United States in this matter was justified.

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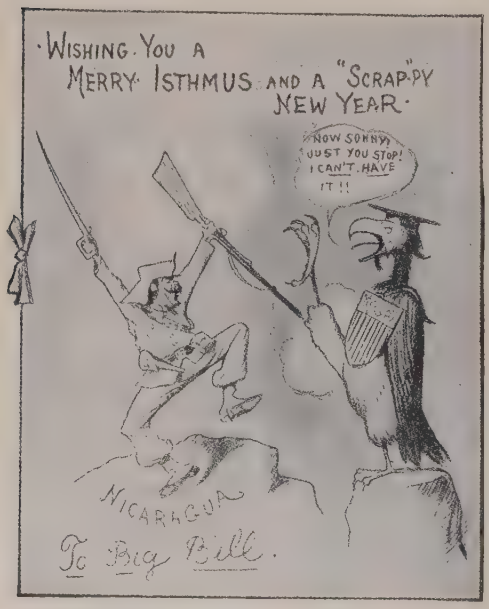
DR. JOSÉ MADRIZ, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF NICARAGUA



A CHRISTMAS CARD THAT WAS NOT SENT

(With this caption London *Punch* prints the above cartoon, which it says might have been sent to President Taft by a bluejacket in the U. S. Navy apropos of the uncertain state of things in Central America)

Advance of the Revolutionists.

Meanwhile General Estrada, commander of the revolutionary forces, had been making a generally successful campaign against the government troops. At the town of Rama early last month the army of Estrada severely defeated the government troops, and by the middle of January the revolutionists had advanced far enough to threaten Managua, the capital city. Madriz thereupon offered to submit the question of the Presidency to a general election. The former Mexican Ambassador to the United States, Señor Enrique Creel, came on a special mission to Washington late in December to set forth the attitude

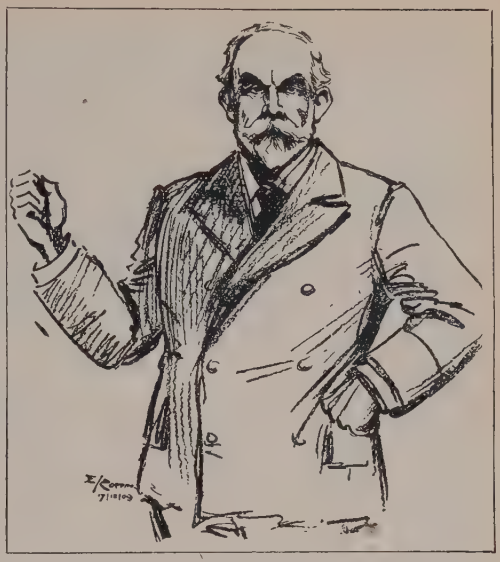
of Mexico in the Nicaraguan matter. "The asylum granted by Mexico to ex-President Zelaya," said Señor Creel, "in no way was an unfriendly act to the United States. The United States and Mexico will continue acting and co-operating in full accord to consolidate peace in Central America." Secretary Knox's policy has been justified by its results, the new President of Nicaragua has approved it, our perfect accord with Mexico has been maintained at all points, and public opinion in South America is favorable to the action of our Government.

The News from Canada

Sir Wilfrid Laurier's proposals for national defense in Canada and for the Dominion's share in the imperial army and navy establishment contemplate the organization of a Canadian militia on the same general lines as the national guard of the United States, and the building of a Canadian navy to be subject to the call of the British admiralty, "provided always that within fifteen days the Dominion Parliament ratifies the call." The plans of the government provide for the construction of eleven ships of war, building to begin at once,—in Canada, if possible. This program is supported in the main by all parties. The measure authorizing the construction of the warships, which had its first reading in the Parliament at Ottawa on January 12, is known as "an act extending the naval service of Canada." It is interesting to note here that the calendar year 1909 marked the highest record ever made in trade between the United States and Canada. During 1909, $88,000,000 worth of imports from Canada and $190,000,000 worth of exports to the Dominion show the already large and rapidly increasing volume of trade. More than 60 per cent. of all Canadian imports, these figures show, are from the United States. Official figures indicate that during the past decade Canadian-American trade has more than doubled. The American and Canadian peoples are being bound closer each year by facts of commerce proximity and mutual friendliness.

The Election in Great Britain

The British general elections of 1910 formally began on January 10, when the second Parliament of King Edward VII. was dissolved, and election writs were issued to every constituency, summoning the new Parliament to meet on the fifteenth day of the present month. The nominations and elections took



MR. JOHN BURNS, ENGLAND'S RADICAL LABOR MINISTER

(Mr. Burns is President of the Local Government Board in England and a member of the Cabinet. He has just been returned to Parliament by an increased majority from the London district of Battersea)

place according to law between the 10th and 28th of last month, the last day of polling for the city boroughs being January 19 and the last for the county and district boroughs the 28th. The actual voting in the great majority of districts took place on the 15th, 17th, 18th, and 19th. The general result was the return of the Liberal government to power, though with somewhat considerably reduced majorities. By January 20 the returns showed a Unionist gain of sixty seats in the House of Commons. We have in this magazine set forth the news of the memorable Parliamentary session just closed. The issues of the present campaign, the events leading up to their formulation, and the leading personalities which have figured before the country in championing these issues are of much interest to Americans. In another part of this number of the REVIEW Mr. Stead tells the story of the campaign.

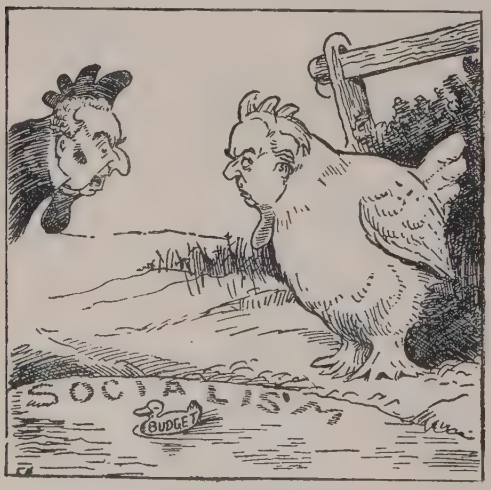
The Liberals Returned to Power

All the members of the present Ministry were returned by their constituents, and some of them, notably Mr. John Burns, with increased majorities. The first candidate to be returned unopposed was Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, the venerable but still fighting champion of Tariff Reform, who has represented one of the

A SCENE IN THE CAMPAIGN COMMITTEE OF THE UNIONISTS IN LONDON

(A typical London election campaign scene, showing the machinery in the headquarters of Lewisham, the largest constituency in the metropolis)

Birmingham districts continuously since 1885, but because of illness has not occupied his seat in the House for some time. The



A UNIONIST ELECTION POSTER

(This cartoon, which illustrates the Unionist idea that the Liberal budget is a Socialistic one, is by the well-known cartoonist, E. Huskinson)

general result of the voting seems to have been that the North of England, and all of Scotland and Wales, with most of Ireland, the so-called "Celtic fringe," have been solid for the government; the Midlands section, notably in the vicinity of Birmingham, favors Tariff Reform, and London, as was expected, according to the results of the by-elections, went over to the Unionist camp, returning 33 Unionists and 28 Liberals. In the last House there were 39 Liberals and 22 Unionists. A noteworthy feature of the campaign was the publication on January 15 of a joint manifesto by Mr. Balfour, leader of the opposition in the House of Commons, and Mr. Chamberlain, declaring that Tariff Reform (the English equivalent of what Americans know as Protection) would not increase the cost of living of the working classes, but would make possible the reduction of the present taxes on articles of working-class consumption, and would lessen unemployment. Premier Asquith on January 18 publicly reiterated his determination to make the question of the right of the House of Lords to veto, a paramount issue when the

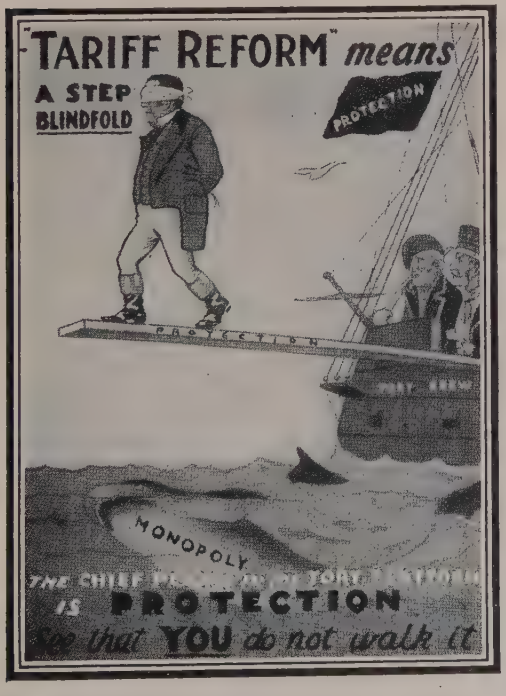
Liberals are returned to power. He also repeated the determination of his party to take up the Home Rule question at the earliest practicable moment.

The Popular New Belgian King

King Albert, the new Belgian monarch, who, as we noted last month, formally succeeded his uncle, the late Leopold II., on December 23, is a close, progressive student of economics, and has already begun to identify himself with the progressive political and economic tendencies of his country. After the coronation ceremonies he addressed the Parliament and pledged himself to work for the social advancement of the nation and the elevation of the moral and intellectual standard of his people. He made particular reference to the cause of popular education and to an early and equitable solution of the Congo question, it being his great ambition "to justify in the eyes of the world the sovereignty of Belgium over the Congo." King Albert's civil list was fixed by the Parliament at 3,300,000 francs, approximately $660,000. The new king, studious and domestic, presents a rather marked contrast to his predecessor. He is said by those who know him well to have a genuine sympathy with the workers, and Socialists and Catholics alike agree that from him much may be expected. He knows the horrors of the Congo at first hand. He is not consumed by the love of money. Belgium, once the cockpit, is now the garden and the workshop of Europe. In Albert I. she seems to have secured a sovereign after her own heart.

THE NEW KING AND QUEEN OF BELGIUM, AND THEIR FAMILY

(This photograph of the young King with his wife and children is unusually interesting because it was taken by the King's mother)

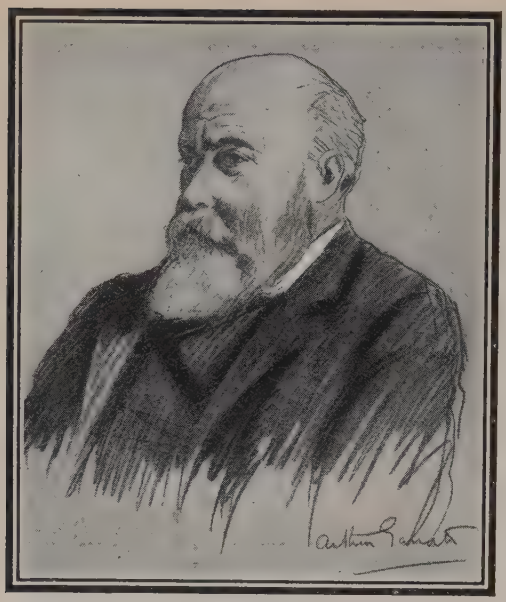


A WIDELY DISTRIBUTED LIBERAL POSTER IN ENGLAND

(Compare this with the Unionist cartoon on the opposite page)

France Adopts a New Tariff

The new French tariff bill which was drawn up by the Tariff Commission expressly appointed for that purpose last winter, was passed on December 29 by a large majority vote, after protracted discussion in the Chamber of Deputies. The bill was drafted by the reporter-general of the commission, M. Peirre V. Morel, a staunch protectionist and disciple of Méline, the father of French tariff makers. Although M. Morel referred to the measure as "simply a work of economic defense, menacing no one," it is generally regarded as aggressively protectionist in character. As passed in the Chamber, it is a high-



COUNT UDO STOLBERG-WERNIGERODE
(The new President of the German Reichstag)

ly specialized law based on the maximum and minimum principle, containing a vast number of concessions that can be offered by France to the nations with which she trades. The enacting clause puts the new tariff in force on March 31 of the present year. It is not considered likely, however, that the Senate will approve the measure in time for it to become a law before the beginning of 1911. In purely domestic matters the French people have been greatly interested during the past few weeks in the plans publicly announced by the new Minister of Marine, Vice-Admiral Boué de Lapeyrére, for the complete reorganization of the French navy; the projected measure of the government for readjusting the relations between the state and the church with regard to the so-called private schools, and the authorization by the Chamber of Deputies for the municipality of Paris to contract a loan of $180,000,000 for an elaborate scheme of improvement, including the demolition of unsanitary buildings, the construction of new streets, gardens, and schools.

Our Tariff Relations with Germany

Almost immediately after the passage of the Aldrich-Payne law last August negotiations were begun between the American and German governments for a new commercial agreement to take the place of our former reciprocity arrangement with Germany, made under the terms of the Dingley act. This arrangement expires on the seventh of the present month, and automatically upon that date the general German tariff rates will apply to all imports from the United States, unless in the meantime a new agreement is made. On April 1, unless the President shall by proclamation decide the minimum rates of our new tariff in effect against Germany, the maximum rates provided for in the Aldrich-Payne tariff will be automatically applied to our vast German import trade. These rates provide for the imposition of the minimum with the addition of 25 per cent. ad valorem. In negotiating for a new agreement our own State Department has demanded a relaxation of some of the severe German restrictions against American cattle. The German contention in reply is that these restrictions are founded on sanitary reasons and embodied in the general laws of the Empire and cannot be regarded as discriminating against the United States.

No Mutual Discrimination

The State Department has also, the newspapers report, protested to the government at Berlin against the passage of the proposed Prussian potash law. Germany has a practical monopoly of potash production, and approximately 60 per cent. of her production, aggregating $7,000,000 in value, is exported to the United States. Up to July of last year the potash output was controlled by a syndicate. When this was broken up the Prussian Government, which controls five potash mines, in order to prevent demoralization of the trade and the cutting of prices, proposed to the Federal Council of the Empire a bill putting the whole German potash industry under Imperial control, and providing that prices must be approved by the Federal Council. Meanwhile a number of American concerns had made new and more favorable contracts with individual mine owners. On January 11, therefore, the American Government informed the German Foreign Office that it would regard the adoption of the proposed potash law as a discrimination against American interests. On January 18 the government at Berlin made formal announcement to the United States that it was unable to agree to the American demands, since the sentiment of the Reichstag was hostile to such concessions. American merchants sell to Germany annually goods to the value of more than $275,000,000 and

buy goods to the value of more than $150,000,000. Our trade with Germany, as regards both export and import, is larger than that with any other country except Great Britain, and an interruption to this trade would result in grave loss to both countries. Undoubtedly some amicable arrangement will be made to prevent the threatened tariff war that is being predicted in the newspapers.

A Change of Cabinet in Turkey

Constitutional government in both Turkey and Greece has been going through some rather unusual experiences recently. At Constantinople the Committee of Union and Progress, otherwise known as the Young Turk party, effected last month what was announced as a reorganization of the Cabinet, which since May last has been under the leadership of Hilmi Pasha. The economic and political regeneration of Turkey has been making steady progress since the deposition of the Sultan Abdul Hamid II. last April. It was in the interest of a complete "modernization of business conditions," the young Turks contend, that the Hilmi Pasha ministry was forced to resign. The new Premier is Hakki Bey, formerly Turkish Ambassador to Rome. On January 19, the Palace of Cheragan, at Constantinople in which the Turkish Parliament meets, was entirely destroyed by fire.

Recent Greek Politics

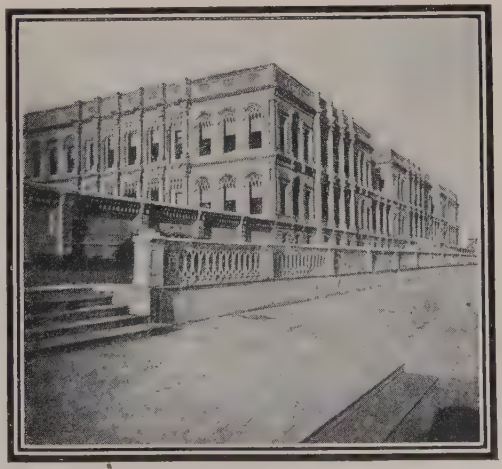
At Athens there has been for some months a disagreement between the King, the Ministry, and the National Assembly, or Bulé (as the Greek one-chamber Parliament is known) on the one side, and the Military League on the other. The army,—particularly the organization of officers,—is dissatisfied with what it characterizes as the weak attitude of Greece toward Turkey in the matter of the annexation of Crete. The Military League, which is very strong and apparently has a good deal of popular support, early last month demanded the resignation of two cabinet ministers and the enactment of several measures reorganizing the Greek army. Their demands were, in the main, conceded. The appointment (on January 3) of a new Minister of War, who himself is a member of the Military League, foreshadows a radical reorganization of the entire military establishment. It remains to be seen whether King George will be able to work out the military reforms without sacrificing anything of the constitutional principle.

Russia in 1909

Summaries of the progress made by Russia during the year that has just closed emphasizes what one reviewer calls the single great legislative asset of the government during 1909. This is the Land Act, which became a law early in the past year, and which opens a way out from the commune system by which Russian peasants have heretofore been virtually bound to the soil. According to figures indicating the workings of this law for the first half of 1909, more than one million independent farmers have been created from the old peasant community of the empire. The Government Land Bank has helped these peasants to get their farms by issuing long-time loans at a low rate of interest, payment being largely conditional upon the state of the harvests. The general political condition of the empire has been quieter, although in the closing days of the year the assassination of several high officials was reported, including the killing by bomb of Colonel Karpov, chief of the secret police at St. Petersburg.

Russia's Special Problems

Late in December the Duma authorized the expenditure of $55,000,000 for the reorganization and redistribution of the army. In regard to naval construction and the reform of the courts very little actual progress is reported. The Duma, it is true, has been debating a habeas corpus project, as well as the general idea of trial by jury. The system of court-martial, however, "reinforced protection," as it is known in Russia, has been in force in most of the Russian cities for nearly four



THE CHERAGAN PALACE ON THE BOSPORUS
(The Turkish Parliament Building in Constantinople, destroyed by fire last month)

years, and there is apparently no intention of doing away with it. As far as the non-Russian nationalities in the empire are concerned, Premier Stolypin has laid it down as a general principle that "nowhere will the Russians who happen to be a numerical minority of the local population be allowed to remain in political inferiority." This means that the local administrations in Finland, Poland, and the Baltic provinces must be acceptable to the Russian nationals residing there. The death of the Grand Duke Michael Nicholaievitch, grand-uncle of the Czar, and the serious illness of the Empress, were also subjects of concern to the Russian people during the past month.

Secretary Knox's Manchurian Note

A clarifying of the economic and political situation in the Far East has been effected by Secretary Knox's note on the Manchurian situation. Late in December Mr. Knox communicated to the governments of China, Japan, Russia, Great Britain, France, and Germany the proposal that the railroads of Manchuria be turned over to China and placed in the hands of an international syndicate which should develop them for commercial instead of political purposes, thus assuring the neutrality of this vast region, which for more than two decades has been the subject of international disagreement and dispute. In the note, which was made public from Washington on January 5, Mr. Knox explained that the American Government makes this proposal in accordance with the policy inaugurated by the late Secretary Hay for the maintenance of the "Open Door" in Manchuria. Early last spring, when the United States Government learned that two railroad concessions of great financial importance had been secured by British, French, and German financial groups, it was suggested that American cooperation would be desirable. In July last the Government at Washington took the rather unusual step of communicating directly in this matter with the Chinese Regent, Prince Chun. The result of this protest has been the agreement, now virtually completed, by which American bankers are to take one-fourth of the loan (approximately, $30,000,000) for the construction of these two railroads, American engineers are to be employed (though not as "chiefs") and American materials are to have the same rights for all present and prospective lines that were reserved to the British, French, and German materials by the original agreement.

Its Significance to the World

Such a "vesting in China of the ownership of its railroads," said Mr. Knox in his note, "would have great international advantages." In concluding his proposal the Secretary noted the fact that an Anglo-American syndicate has obtained a concession for a railroad connecting Aigun, in North Manchuria, with Chinchow-fu, farther to the south, and that the British and American governments intend to support this concession diplomatically. The railroads referred to in the note are not all the lines in the province, but the two great lines constructed by the Eastern Chinese Railway Company, a Russian corporation organized by the Russo-Chinese Bank under agreements made between China and Russia in 1896 and 1898. One of them, known as the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, is really an extension of the Trans-Siberian extending across Manchuria to Vladivostok. The other, the South Manchurian line, extends southward from the first-mentioned line at Harbin and eventually terminates at Port Arthur.

Russia and China Unwilling

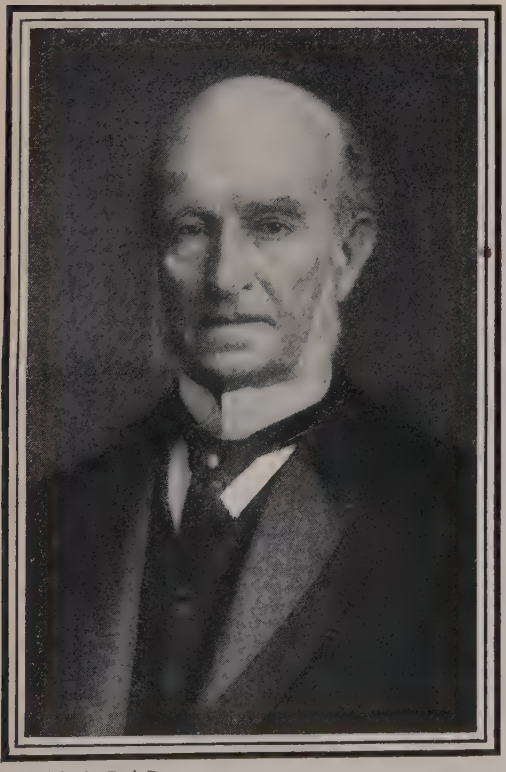
The treaty of Portsmouth, which terminated the Russo-Japanese war, divided these roads between Russia and Japan, the former securing about two-thirds and the latter one-third of their mileage. It was also agreed in the treaty aforesaid that except in the leased territory the roads in question should be used exclusively for commercial and industrial purposes. Russia, however, contending that her agreements with China, already referred to, are still in force and permit her to have "the exclusive and absolute right of administration" over the territory within the railroad zone, has attempted to enforce this right during the past two years by means of certain administrative regulations in Harbin and other Siberian cities in a manner objectionable to the Chinese and other foreign residents. This phase of the subject, as we have noted more than once in these pages, has caused some considerable displomatic friction. It has been chiefly Russia's unwillingness to forego, or compromise in any way, the treaty privilege claimed under the agreements with China in 1896 and 1898 that has been responsible for the tangled condition of Manchurian economic and financial affairs during the past two years. The interview that had been arranged between the Russian Minister of Finance, Kokovtzov, and Marquis Ito, it is generally supposed, and which was

prevented by the assassination of Ito in October last, was for the purpose of disposing of Russia's railroad rights to Japan, for a consideration not mentioned.

China's Right in the Matter

It should be remembered, in considering Mr. Knox's proposal, that in the two agreements with China it was stipulated that the government at Peking might purchase these railroads at cost in the year 1938, or that it might claim reversion of them without payment eighty years after the date of agreement,—that is, in 1982. Secretary Knox's proposal is, therefore, nothing more than a suggestion that China do now what she will have the right to do at certain dates in the future, and that in return for "the privilege of anticipation" she shall place the roads under an international guarantee of neutrality. Late in January it was announced that the Chinese Foreign Board had refused to accept Secretary Knox's proposition. On January 21, the Japanese and Russian governments, in notes handed to our ambassadors at Tokio and St. Petersburg, politely declined to assent to Mr. Knox's proposal.

THE LATE SPENCER TRASK, OF NEW YORK



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THE LATE D. O. MILLS

Some Obituary Notes

In the obituary list of the month occur some names of men well known in public affairs. Mr. Spencer Trask and Mr. D. O. Mills were not only eminent as financiers but also as generous and philanthropic, with a broad outlook upon the progress of the country. Mr. Mills had attained great age, while Mr. Trask, who was much younger, lost his life in a railway accident. In the death of Mr. Nabuco, the Brazilian Ambassador, the Western Hemisphere loses one of its ablest diplomatists and statesmen. Elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW will be found a recognition of the work of the late Frederic Remington, the artist whose pictures of Indian and frontier life are so well known. Cardinal Satolli felt himself as much at home in the United States as in Italy. Gen. Daniel H. Rucker was the oldest retired officer of the United States Army. He died at the age of ninety-eight and was a prominent figure in Indian campaigns previous to his gallant service in the Mexican War. He served through the Civil War and was not retired until the age of seventy-one. Gen. N. M. Curtis also died early in January. He was famous as having led the charge on Fort Fisher in 1865.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From December 20, 1909, to January 20, 1910)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

December 21.—The Senate adopts a resolution calling on the President for all papers relating to the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy.... In the House, the District of Columbia Appropriation bill is passed.

January 4.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess.

January 5.—Resolutions providing for a joint investigation of the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy are introduced in both Houses....In the Senate, two resolutions are introduced providing for an inquiry into the increased cost of living. ....The House passes the bill abolishing the Isthmian Canal Commission and creating in its stead the office of Director-General.

January 6.—In the Senate, a letter from Gifford Pinchot to Senator Dolliver is read, in which the former indorses the charges against Secretary Ballinger and criticises the President for removing Glavis.

January 7.—A special message from the President, recommending certain amendments to the interstate commerce and anti-trust laws, is received and read in the House; the resolution calling for a joint investigation of the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy is adopted by a vote of 149 to 146, with an amendment providing that the members from the House shall be designated by the House itself instead of by Speaker Cannon.

January 10.—The President's special message on the interstate commerce and anti-trust laws is received and read in the Senate; the resolution to investigate the Ballinger-Pinchot affair is adopted....In the House, the Administration's interstate commerce bill is introduced.

January 11.—In the Senate, the Administration's interstate commerce measure is introduced....The House passes the Army Appropriation bill.

January 13.—The House passes the Fortifications Appropriation bill.

January 14.—The House receives the President's special message on conservation of natural resources.

January 17.—The special message from the President on conservation is read in the Senate. ....The House passes the bill providing statehood for New Mexico and Arizona.

January 18.—In the Senate, bills are introduced embodying the President's recommendations on Alaskan and conservation matters.... The House considers the Urgent Deficiency bill.

January 19.—The Senate passes the District of Columbia Appropriation bill....The House passes a bill abolishing the Lighthouse Board and considers the Mann "white slave" bill.

January 20.—In the Senate, the Vice-President appoints as members of the Ballinger-Pinchot investigation committee Messrs. Nelson, of Minnesota; Root, of New York; Flint, of California, and Sutherland, of Utah; Republicans; and Paynter, of Kentucky, and Fletcher, of Florida, Democrats....The House elects as its representatives on the Ballinger-Pinchot committee Messrs. McCall, of Massachusetts; Olmsted, of Pennsylvania; Denby, of Michigan, and Madison, of Kansas, Republicans; and James, of Kentucky, and Lloyd of Missouri, Democrats.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

December 21.—The Interstate Commerce Commission, in its annual report to Congress, asks for more power to regulate railroad rates.

December 24.—Federal Judge Pollock, in a decision handed down at Topeka, declares the Kansas bank-guarantee law void.

December 27.—Governor Noel, of Mississippi, appoints Col. James Gordon as United States Senator until such time as the Legislature may elect a successor to fill the unexpired term of the late A. J. McLaurin.

December 28.—The committee appointed by Mayor McClellan, of New York, reports to him against complete equalization of the pay of women and men teachers in the public schools.

December 30.—Attorney-General Wickersham asks the United States Supreme Court to appoint a receiver for the American Tobacco Company, alleging conspiracy in restraint of trade. ....At a special election the city of San Francisco votes in favor of municipal operation of a street-railway line owned by the city.

January 1.—The law prohibiting the manufacture of liquors in the State of Tennessee goes into effect....William J. Gaynor (Dem.) begins his term as Mayor of New York City.

January 3.—Governor Harmon, of Ohio, in his annual message to the Legislature, recommends the ratification of the income tax amendment to the Constitution.

January 4.—Secretary Wilson orders that the Department of Agriculture conduct a thorough inquiry into the cost of living.

January 5.—In a special message to the New York Legislature, Governor Hughes states that he is in favor of an income tax, but asks that the Legislature reject the amendment as passed by Congress on the ground that it confers power to tax the income derived from State and municipal bonds....President Taft names Alfred C. Coxe as presiding judge of the new Court of Customs Appeals, the other members being William H. Hunt, James F. Smith, O. H. Barber, and Marion De Vries.

January 6.—President Taft sends to the Senate the nominations of Cuno H. Rudolph and Gen. John S. Johnston to be Commissioners of the District of Columbia.

January 7.—President Taft directs the Secretary of Agriculture to remove from office Gifford Pinchot, chief of the Forest Service.

January 9.—Secretary Ballinger suspends four officials of Oklahoma Territory, as a result of conditions affecting the Indian schools.

January 11.—John F. Fitzgerald (Dem.) is elected Mayor of Boston by a small plurality over James J. Storrow, the reform nominee.

January 12.—The President appoints Henry S. Graves chief of the Forest Service.

January 14.—President Taft effects a temporary truce between the insurgents and regulars of the House....A high city official and four prominent business men of Pittsburg are arrested, charged with conspiracy and bribery.

January 18.—Charges of bribery are made against Jotham P. Allds, the newly elected leader of the New York State Senate....Isador Rayner is re-elected to the United States Senate by the Maryland Legislature.

January 19.—President Taft signs the resolution providing for a Congressional investigation of the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy.

January 20.—The New York Senate votes to investigate the charges against State Senator Allds.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

December 20.—José Madriz is elected President by the Nicaraguan Congress; General Estrada, representing the Revolutionists, refuses to accept the selection, and the choice is also said to be not acceptable to the United States....The Chilean cabinet resigns.

December 21.—The British House of Lords decides that trade unions have no right to assess members to provide pay for representatives in Parliament....Herbert Gladstone is appointed Governor-General of South Africa.

December 22.—A new Progressive cabinet is formed in Portugal, headed by Señor Beirao.

December 23.—Albert I. ascends the throne of Belgium and promises reforms in the Congo.... Emperor Francis Joseph appoints Ladislaus von Lukacs Premier of Hungary.

December 24.—King Albert, of Belgium, requests Premier Schollaert and the members of his cabinet to retain their portfolios....The Greek crisis is ended by the resignation of the Minister of War.

December 26.—President Madriz, of Nicaragua, orders the arrest of several leading Zelayans, including a son-in-law of the ex-President, charging them with misappropriation of public funds....The committee on national defense of the Russian Duma refuses to grant the proposed credit for new battleships.

December 28.—It is officially announced that the Spanish Cortes will be dissolved in January.

December 29.—The French Chamber of Deputies passes a high protective tariff bill....The Sultan of Turkey accepts the resignation of Hilmi Pasha, Grand Vizier.

December 31.—Hakki Bey is appointed Grand Vizier of Turkey.

January 10.—King Edward dissolves the British Parliament and summons a new one to meet on February 15.

January 11.—Emperor Francis Joseph instructs Count Khuen von Hedervary to form a cabinet, the one proposed by Ladislaus von Lukacs having failed to meet his approval.... Emperor William opens the Prussian Diet, promising reform in the election law.

January 12.—The Canadian Government's naval program is announced; it involves the construction of eleven vessels at a cost of $12,000,000.

January 13.—The Captain-General of Madrid and several other Spanish army officers are relieved of their commands for criticising the government.

January 15.—Voting begins throughout Great Britain for members of the new Parliament.

January 17.—Count Khuen von Hedervary succeeds in forming a ministry which meets with the approval of Emperor Francis Joseph.

January 18.—Two 28,000-ton battleships of the *Dreadnought* type are authorized in Argentina.

January 19.—The French Foreign Minister replies in the Chamber of Deputies to attacks made by Catholic Deputies on the government's system of education.

January 20.—The voting to date in the British general election, while showing decided gains for the Unionists, indicates a small Liberal-Laborite majority.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

December 23.—Secretary Knox warns President Madriz that he will be held responsible for the safety of Americans in western Nicaragua.

December 25.—Ex-President Zelaya leaves Nicaragua for Mexico on a Mexican gunboat.

December 27.—China makes formal complaint to Japan that the latter country is violating the Manchurian telegraph convention.

December 28.—Venezuela terminates the diplomatic mission to France, the latter country insisting upon the arbitration of claims of French citizens expelled by Castro.

December 29.—Joseph Chamberlain, in a proclamation to the Birmingham electors, maintains that Great Britain is threatened by foreign nations as it never was before.

January 1.—Dispatches from London to this country indicate that governmental and industrial affairs in Liberia are in a state of stagnation, officials and people momentarily expecting active intervention by the United States.

January 2.—Negotiations having failed to adjust the dispute over the boundary of Macao, Portugal's 4 square miles of territory on the coast of China near Hongkong, the Chinese Government notifies Portugal that under no circumstances will it consent to arbitration.

January 5.—Secretary Knox announces that he has addressed a note to the governments signatory to the last Hague Convention, proposing that the international prize court established by that conference shall be invested with the functions and jurisdiction of such a tribunal, making international arbitration a fact instead of a theory....The Russian Foreign Office announces that it has received from the United States Government a proposal to neutralize foreign-owned railroads in Manchuria by selling them to China and financing them by an

international syndicate....It is announced in London that the tariff on live cattle from Argentina will be removed, lowering the price of meat.

January 8.—Japanese statesmen and press oppose Secretary Knox's plan for neutralizing the railroads in Manchuria....There is considerable alarm in France over affairs in French Indo-China....The Sultan of Turkey protests to the powers against Cretan officials, taking the oath of allegiance to the King of Greece.

January 11.—The Peruvian Congress sanctions the boundary treaty with Brazil....Marquis Cusani-Confalioneri is appointed Italian Ambassador to the United States.

January 12.—The German Government announces its approval of the plan to neutralize the railroads of Manchuria.

January 17.—The American Consul-General at Paris explains before the American Chamber of Commerce in that city that the Payne Tariff will not injure France....The Supreme Court of the Philippines decides that the island government has power to regulate foreign commerce with the islands.

January 18.—President Taft issues proclamations under the new Tariff law, declaring that Great Britain, Russia, Spain, Italy, Turkey, and Switzerland are entitled to minimum rates.

January 19.—Ambassador Rockhill confers with the Russian Foreign Minister on the neutralization of Manchurian railroads.

AERONAUTICS

December 30.—Leon Delagrange, in a Bleriot monoplane, establishes a new speed record at Juvisy, France, covering 124 miles at the rate of 49 miles an hour.

December 31.—The Michelin Cup and cash prize of $4000 for the longest aeroplane flight during 1909 is awarded to Henry Farman; on November 3 he established a record of 144 miles in 4:17:35.

January 4.—Leon Delagrange is killed and Santos Dumont severely injured in accidents to their aeroplanes on aviation fields near Paris.

January 6.—An Englishman named Meal is seriously injured, falling with his machine from a height of 30 feet, at Cannes, France.

January 7.—Hubert Latham attains a height of about 3600 feet at Mourmelon, France.

January 9.—The Aero Club, of France, decides to issue challenges for the international balloon and aeroplane trophies (James Gordon Bennett), held by the Aero Club of America.

January 10.—The Aero Club, of California, opens its first aeronautic carnival at Los Angeles....The Wright Brothers, in an interview at New York City, deny that their suits against Curtiss and Paulhan for infringement of patents will tend to retard the progress of aviation, and state that no one who confined himself to the development of the art has been molested.

January 11.—Glenn H. Curtiss, in a short flight in his biplane at Los Angeles, establishes a new world's record for aeroplanes carrying a passenger, developing a speed estimated at 55 miles an hour....The International Aeronautical Federation, in session at Paris, announces the dates of aviation carnivals during 1910; those in the United States are to be held from October 18 to November 2, when $200,000 will be offered in prizes.

January 12.—Circling over the aviation field at Los Angeles in a Farman biplane, Louis Paulhan reaches a height estimated at 4200 feet.

January 13.—Louis Paulhan carries two passengers with him twice around the course at Los Angeles.

January 14.—Louis Paulhan flies across country from Los Angeles to San Pedro and back, a distance of 20 miles, in 35 minutes.

January 18.—A cross-country flight of 47 miles, in 1 hour and 3 minutes, is made by Paulhan at Los Angeles in a Farman biplane..

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

December 20.—Henry Phipps gives $500,000 for the establishment of a hospital in connection with the University of Pennsylvania.

December 21.—The University of Copenhagen declares that the data submitted to it by Dr. Frederick A. Cook are insufficient to prove his claim that he reached the North Pole.

December 22.—Assassinations of high officials are reported from various parts of the world, all of them by natives; the premier of Korea is stabbed at Seoul, the chief of police of St. Petersburg is killed by a bomb in the Russian capital, and a British chief magistrate in the Indian Service is assassinated at Bombay....Charles L. Warriner, formerly local treasurer of the Big Four Railroad at Cincinnati, pleads guilty to the charge of embezzling $643,000 and is sentenced to five years at hard labor....King Leopold is buried after elaborate ceremonies in Brussels.

December 23.—The *Utah*, which when completed will be the largest battleship afloat, is launched at Camden, N. J.

December 24.—All southwestern Europe suffers from storms and floods; in Spain and Portugal the material damage is enormous....Two thousand lives and hundreds of vessels are reported lost in a severe gale off Japan and Korea.

December 25.—Ten persons are killed and a score or more seriously injured in a collision between an express and a freight train in Bohemia.

December 26.—New England and New York are in the grasp of a snow and wind storm which causes great damage; in Boston transportation is interrupted, electric wires are down, and several lives are lost....The International Zionist Congress opens at Hamburg.

December 27.—A sensational flurry in Rock Island common on the New York Stock Exchange leads to an investigation by the governors....The Indian National Congress opens at Lahore.

December 29.—The centenary of William E. Gladstone's birth is celebrated....It is estimated that there are over 4000 cases of typhoid fever in Montreal, due to polluted drinking water....Eleven Newfoundland schooners and sixty men are reported lost in the Christmas storm.

December 31.—According to figures made public at Washington, the imports into the United States during 1909 were the greatest in its history....Mayor McClellan formally opens for traffic the Manhattan Bridge, connecting Manhattan and Brooklyn Boroughs, New York City....In a collision between a fast freight

and a passenger express, at Croton, N. Y., Spencer Trask, the banker and philanthropist, is killed and two others are seriously injured.... Three persons are killed and forty-three injured in the derailing of a passenger train at Trenton, Mo.

January 2.—Floods do great damage to railroad in southern Utah, Nevada, and California.

January 3.—Charles W. Morse, the banker, begins his fifteen-year sentence in the federal prison at Atlanta, Ga.

January 5.—Governor Hughes, of New York, announces a gift to the State of 11,000 acres of land and $1,000,000, from Mrs. E. H. Harriman, for creating a State park.

January 6.—The British Government pledges $100,000 toward the Scott expedition to the South Pole....The Greek royal palace at Tatoi, near Athens, is destroyed by fire.

January 10.—Four former employees of the Sugar Trust are sentenced in New York to one year in the penitentiary.

January 11.—A statue of Gen. Lew Wallace is unveiled in the capitol at Washington.

January 13.—Thirty persons lose their lives in the wreck of the Southern Pacific steamer *Czarina* off Marshfield, Ore.

January 14.—Charles R. Heike, secretary, and five employees of the American Sugar Refining Company are indicted in New York City for conspiracy in connection with weighing scandals.

January 15.—The four daily newspapers of Denver suspend publication following a strike of their pressmen.

January 16.—A riot involving 20,000 persons occurs in Naples, due to increase in rents of workmen's homes.

January 17.—The Shoshone Dam in Wyoming is complete....President Taft speaks at the opening session of the National Civic Federation conference at Washington.

January 18.—President Taft and Governor Hughes address the conference of Governors at its opening session in Washington.

January 19.—The Palace of Cheragan, the Turkish Parliament house on the Bosporus, is destroyed by fire....Heavy storms in France and Switzerland cause great damage from floods....John R. Walsh, the convicted Chicago banker, begins a five-year sentence in the federal prison at Leavenworth, Kan....The Southern Health Conference is organized at Atlanta to fight the hookworm disease.

January 20.—The conference of Governors at Washington adjourns after making plans for a future meeting at some State capital.

OBITUARY

December 20.—George P. Fisher, professor emeritus of ecclesiastical history at Yale, 82.... William A. Harris, ex-United States Senator from Kansas, 68....Edwin T. Evans, a pioneer in transportation on the Great Lakes, 73.

December 21.—Ex-Chief Justice Benjamin S. Liddon, of the Florida Supreme Court, 57.

December 22.—Anselm J. McLaurin, United States Senator from Mississippi, 61....Timothy P. Sullivan, the Tammany politician, 40.

December 24.—Ernest von Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, the German banker, 63.

December 25.—Thomas Murdoch, a pioneer in the wholesale grocery business of the Middle West, 81....Richard Bowdler Sharpe, an eminent English ornithologist, 62.

December 26.—Frederic Remington, the artist and sculptor, 48 (see page 225)....Dumont Clarke, a prominent New York banker, 69.... Walter Shirlaw, the artist, 71.

December 28.—Arthur Gilman, the author and founder of Radcliffe College, Massachusetts, 73.

December 29.—George W. McNear, a prominent grain dealer, of California, 72.

December 31.—Spencer Trask, the New York banker and philanthropist, 65.

January 1.—Sir Edward Leader Williams, the English authority on canals, 82.

January 2.—Prof. William Arnold Stevens, of the Rochester Theological Seminary, a writer on biblical subjects, 71.

January 3.—Darius Ogden Mills, the banker and philanthropist, 84.

January 5.—Congressman James W. Griggs, of Georgia, 48.

January 6.—Major-Gen. Daniel H. Rucker, U. S. A., retired, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil Wars, 98....Samuel S. Sanford, formerly professor of applied music at Yale, 60....William Seligman, prominent in banking circles in this country and Europe, 88....Mrs. Flora A. Darling, founder of the Daughters of the American Revolution and other patriotic societies, 69.

January 7.—Brig.-Gen. Loomis L. Langdon, U. S. A., retired, 78.

January 8.—Major-Gen. Newton M. Curtis, U. S. A., retired, 74....Cardinal Satolli, the first Apostolic Delegate to the United States, 70.... Prof. James Barr Ames, dean of the Harvard Law School, 64.

January 10.—Rev. Patrick Healy, formerly president of Georgetown University, 71.

January 11.—Hamilton McKown Twombly, the New York capitalist and railroad man, 60.

January 12.—Rufus N. Rhodes, editor of the Birmingham *News*, 53....James Hannay, the Canadian historian, 49.

January 13.—Andrew Jackson Davis, M. D., fifty years ago a distinguished spiritualist, 83.

January 14.—Charles H. Truax, formerly justice of the New York Supreme Court, 63.... John P. Hopkinson, founder of the Hopkinson School in Boston, 70.

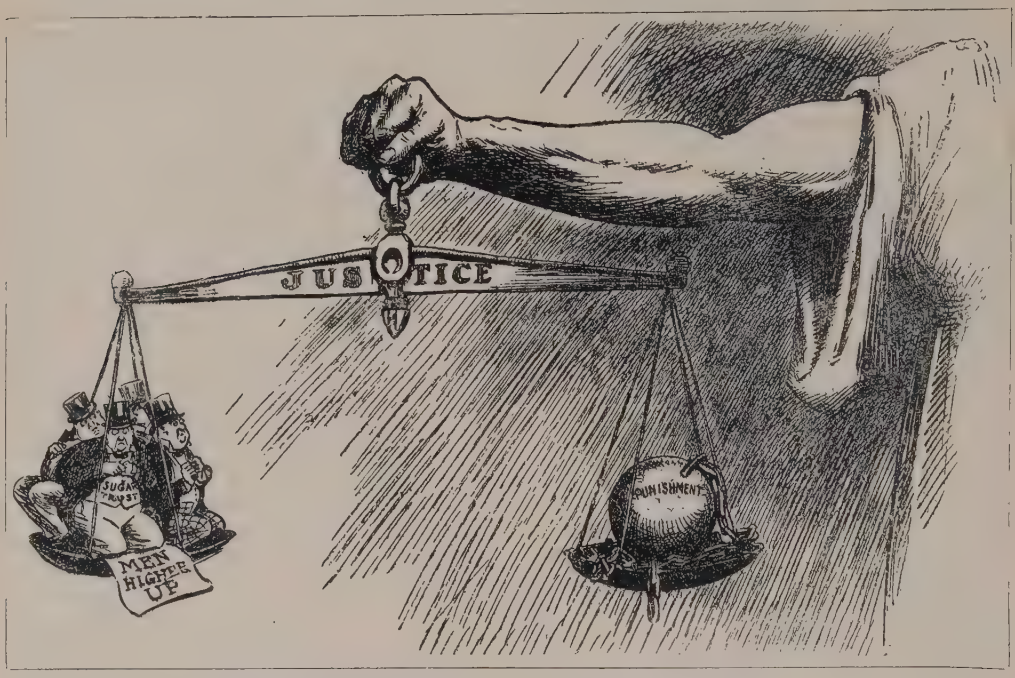
January 15.—John W. Breidenthal, for many years a leader of the Populists in Kansas, 53.

January 17.—Joaquim Nabuco, Brazilian Ambassador to the United States, 60....Ex-Governor George T. Werts, of New Jersey, 63.

January 18.—John Farson, the prominent Chicago banker, 54.

January 19.—Ex-Governor Robert Lowry, of Mississippi, 78.

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARICATURE



"SECRET SPRINGS HAVE NO PLACE IN THESE SCALES"

From the *Herald* (New York)

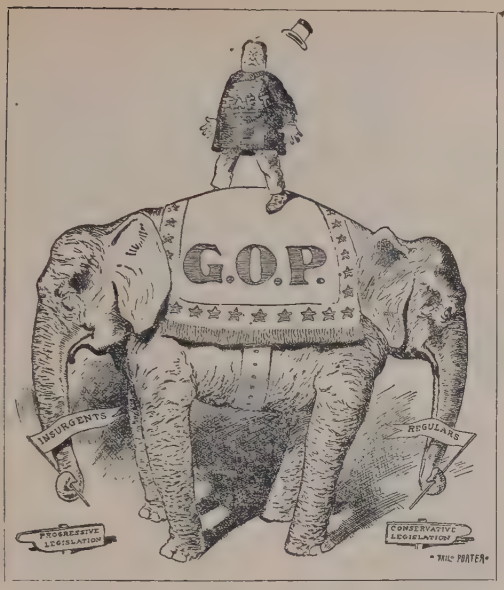
(Within the last month, the now famous investigation of frauds in the weighing of sugar at the port of New York has led to the indictment of at least one high official of the sugar trust)

TAFT "PUTTING IT GENTLY" TO THE TRUSTS

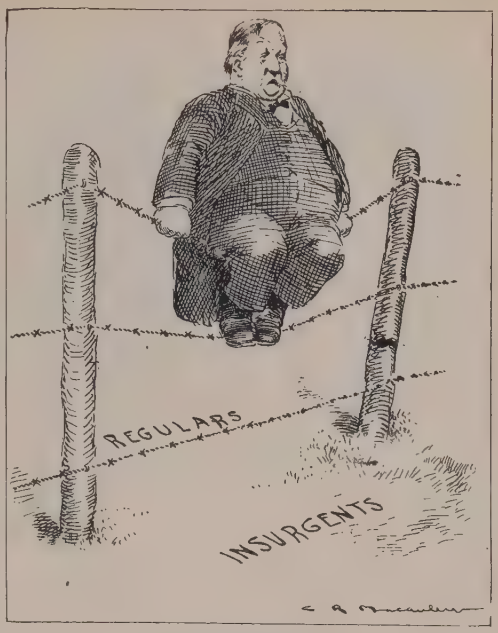
From the *Jersey Journal* (Jersey City)

WILL HE COME IN UNDER TAFT'S UMBRELLA?

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



COMING OR GOING?
From the *Traveler* (Boston)



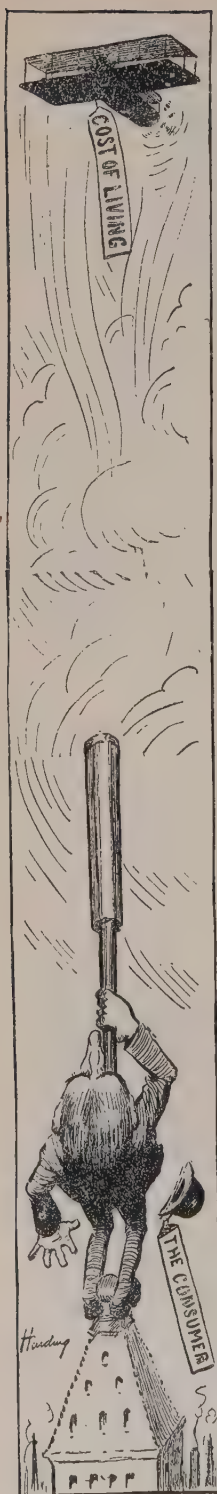
UNCOMFORTABLE
From the *World* (New York)

The four cartoons on this page are selected from scores that have to do with Mr. Taft's relation to the controversy between the Republican "insurgents" in Congress and the so-called "regulars." It was reported last month that Mr. Taft would withhold patronage in their States from insurgent Senators and Congressmen, and the two cartoons on the bottom of the page refer to that matter. The President is naturally trying to prevent a serious party split. It is denied on his behalf that he has been trying to use the patronage club. He is not trying to drive the Republican elephant either Westward into the insurgent camp or Eastward into that of the regulars. His modest proposition is to have a camp of his own and feed the elephant Republican pabulum on his own premises.

THE CONGRESSIONAL "INSURGENTS" AND FEDERAL PATRONAGE

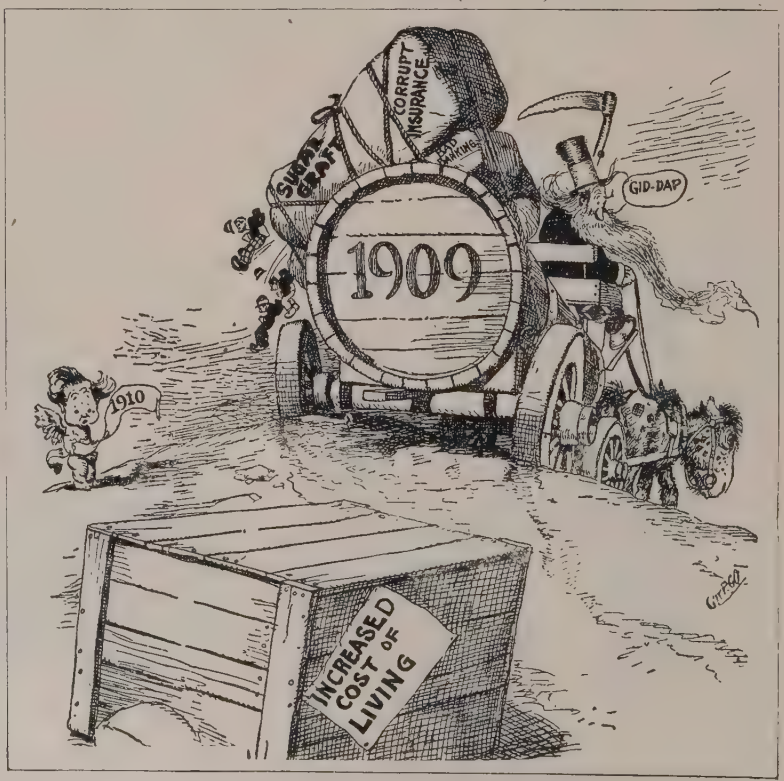
PRES. TAFT: "This pie is for good little boys only!"
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

CHORUS OF INSURGENTS: "Oh! We'll be good."
From the *Herald* (New York)



THE HIGHEST YET!
From the *Eagle*
(New York)

SPEAK UP, BOY, WHERE DOES YOUR FATHER LIVE?
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)



HEY! YOU FORGOT SOMETHING!
From the *American* (New York)

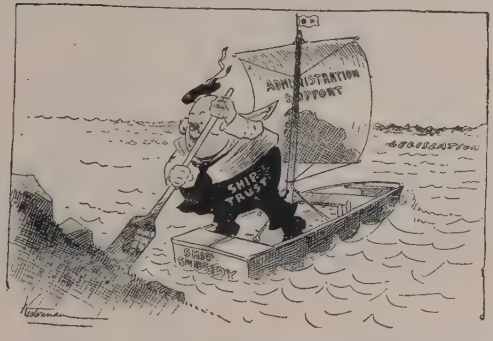
AJAX PINCHOT DEFYING THE PRESIDENTIAL LIGHTNING

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)

LET THERE BE LIGHT!

From the *Herald* (Washington)

The Ballinger-Pinchot controversy, the ship subsidy bil, the alleged leadership of Congress by Messrs. Aldrich and Cannon, and Mr. J. P. Morgan's recent financial operations, give point to the various cartoons on this page.



THE INTREPID MARINER PUTS TO SEA ONCE MORE

From the *State Journal* (Columbus)

CONGRESS WILL KEEP HANDS FIRMLY TO THE PLOW!

(Aldrich and Cannon appear to be the real farmers)

From the *State Journal* (Columbus)

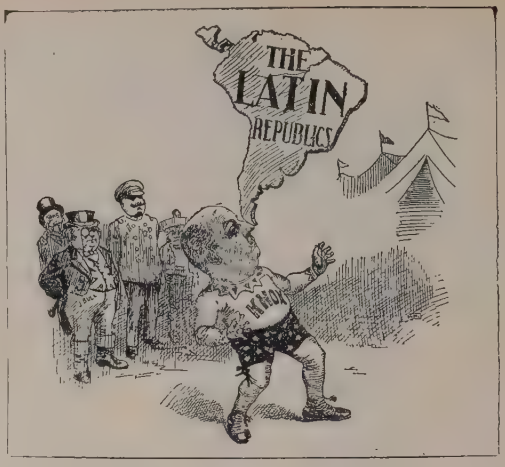
ATLAS

From the *World* (New York)

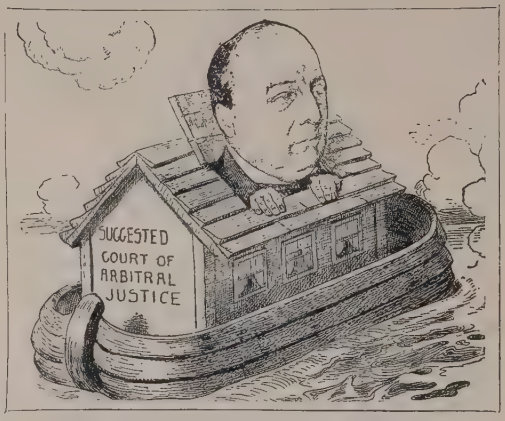
WITHIN RANGE OF HIS SHOVEL
We must have good neighbors at Panama.
From the *American* (Baltimore)

The cartoons on this page represent a number of interesting international situations in which the United States is involved.

UNNECESSARY ALARM
Canada has caught the armament scare from John Bull.
From the *American* (Baltimore)



KEEP YOUR EYE ON THE PROFESSOR!
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)



KNOX WAITING FOR THE DOVE'S RETURN
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)

POSSIBLE INTERNATIONAL TARIFF TROUBLES
Are these two nice old gentlemen going to allow their tariff dogs to get them into a squabble?
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

Photograph by Paul Thompson

A TYPICAL SCENE IN THE BRITISH GENERAL ELECTION CAMPAIGN

(A North of Ireland clergyman addressing a crowd in the interest of one of the Liberal candidates)

THE GENERAL ELECTION IN GREAT BRITAIN

BY W. T. STEAD

FROM whatever point of view it is regarded the general election of January, 1910, is one of the most interesting that has taken place of late years in the United Kingdom. There is something almost dazzling in the sensational challenge which in the first decade of the twentieth century the one remaining hereditary chamber in the world has addressed to the hitherto triumphant democracy of Great Britain. Privileges which the House of Commons has jealously preserved as the center and life and soul of representative institutions have been boldly assailed by the House of Lords, and the question of whether the British Empire is in future to be ruled by the People or by the Peers has been referred by the Peers themselves to the vote of the People. It is very magnificent, but it is hardly practical politics. Still the appeal has been made, and before these lines meet the eye of the reader, the decision of between seven and eight millions of electors will have been registered at the ballot box.

Writing as I do before the first constituency has been polled I must of necessity treat the question of the result of this appeal to the People as an open question, and confine myself to a simple straightforward expositon of what the general election is, how it is conducted, and what are the leading issues before the electors, accompanying this exposition by brief sketches of the leading figures in the electoral combat.

THE ELECTORATE

In round numbers there are 42,000,000 inhabitants in the United Kingdom, inhabiting over 8,000,000 houses, and there are on the electoral register nearly 8,000,000 names. Of these, nearly 800,000 live in Scotland, 700,000 in Ireland, and less than 400,000 in

Wales. The remaining 6,000,000 are in England.

At the general election of 1906, 6,000,000 votes were cast, and the Liberal plurality was 836,418. The Liberals at that time polled a majority in all the four divisions of the United Kingdom, the figures being 430,000 in England, 74,000 in Wales, 131,000 in Scotland, and 200,000 in Ireland. This was far the most decisive vote that had been cast at any general election.

In 1892 the Liberal plurality was only 200,000. In 1895 the Unionists had converted this into a Unionist plurality of 123,000.

The House of Commons consists of 670 members, distributed as follows:

ENGLAND.		WALES.	
London	61	Boroughs	11
Boroughs	165	Counties	19
Counties	234		30
Universities	5		
	465		
SCOTLAND.		**IRELAND.**	
Burghs	31	Boroughs	16
Counties	39	Counties	85
Universities	2	Universities	2
	72		103

At the General Election of 1906 these four divisions were represented as follows:

	LIBERAL.	UNIONIST.
England	337	128
Wales	30	0
Scotland	61	11
Ireland	84	19
	512	158

showing an anti-Unionist majority of 354.

It ought, however, to be noted that the Liberal 512 include 41 Independent Labor members and 84 Irish Nationalists. The Labor men almost always vote with the Liberals. The Irish Nationalists vote, as a rule, with the Liberals, excepting on questions relating to sectarian education and whisky.

It is obvious from the most cursory glance at these figures that the Unionists did not in 1906 obtain anything like the number of the seats in the House to which they were entitled by proportional representation. Of the electors 3,400,000 in round numbers voted Liberal and 2,500,000 Unionist. Every member ought in strict proportion to be elected by 8800 votes. But the Liberals only averaged 6600 and the Unionists 16,200. The Liberal majority in the constituencies was only 33 per cent. above the Unionists. In the House they had a majority of more than three to one.

This result is inevitable when feeling runs high in all the constituencies in the same direction. Wales, for instance, returned 30 Liberals and not a solitary Conservative, although on any system of proportional representation they would have had 10 seats. This must be borne in mind in estimating the significance of the polls at this year's election. It is quite possible that the Liberals might poll as large a plurality as in 1906, and yet lose half their majority in the House. A local or sectional decrease in the Liberal electorate in one part of the country, which was more than counterbalanced on the total vote by a rise in the Liberal majorities in other constituencies, would materially affect the majority of members sent to Westminster.

The voting is by secret ballot, and in England the ballot is really secret. The polling is spread over a fortnight, a fact which operates favorably for the party which scores heavily in the opening contests. There are always many waiters upon Providence who vote with the winning side. In the present election the first poll took place on January 15, the last on January 29. In order to obtain a majority of one, the Unionists needed to win back 178 of the seats they lost in 1906. As they had admitted themselves that they did not expect to win more than half a dozen seats at the outside in the Celtic fringe,—that is to say, in Wales, Scotland, and Ireland,—they needed to capture every other seat held by the Liberals in England in 1906.

The cost of a general election is roughly estimated at a million sterling ($5,000,000), an expenditure which is borne by the candidates, whose resources, when inadequate, are eked out by the party funds.

THE LEADERS IN THE FRAY

We now come to the question of the personalities which tower aloft above the rank and file. First and foremost stands the diminutive but energetic figure of Mr. Lloyd-George, the Chancellor of the Exchequer. It is his budget which has precipitated the conflict. He is a comparatively young man of slender physique, full of Celtic fire and passion. He is a Baptist in religion, and unlike many Nonconformists he has risen to the front rank without deserting the chapel of his fathers. He has sprung from the ranks and was educated in a Church school, where he was once offered the position of a pupil teacher on condition that he would abjure Nonconformity. "Had I done so," said he humorously, "I should probably at this time have been raised to the dignity of a curate of the Church of England." He is a Welshman, and Welsh of the Welsh, speaking with

equal facility both English and his mother tongue. He distinguished himself during the South African War by the uncompromising fidelity with which he defended the cause of justice and liberty, with equal risk both to life and limb. He took office as Chancellor, as he once told me, because finance was the only region in which the veto of the Lords did not prevail. But he did not realize then the temerity or audacity of the Peers. His budget struck the popular imagination as the first great attempt that had ever been made by an English statesman to grapple with the condition-of-the-people question on broad statesmanlike lines. His speeches at Limehouse and Newcastle were frank appeals to the mass of the people to use their power in order to redress the gross abuses and unjust monopolies which have hindered their development and retarded their progress. As a speaker he is of the first rank. His humor never fails, his passion is always under control, and his imagination is Celtic in its exuberance. He is far and away the most popular minister to-day among the Liberals, and as a natural consequence the most detested by his opponents in the House of Commons. His personality exercises a singular charm even upon his bitterest opponents. But when he is on the stump he succeeds to an extraordinary extent in rousing the fury of those whose chartered abuses and anti-social monopolies he unsparingly condemns.

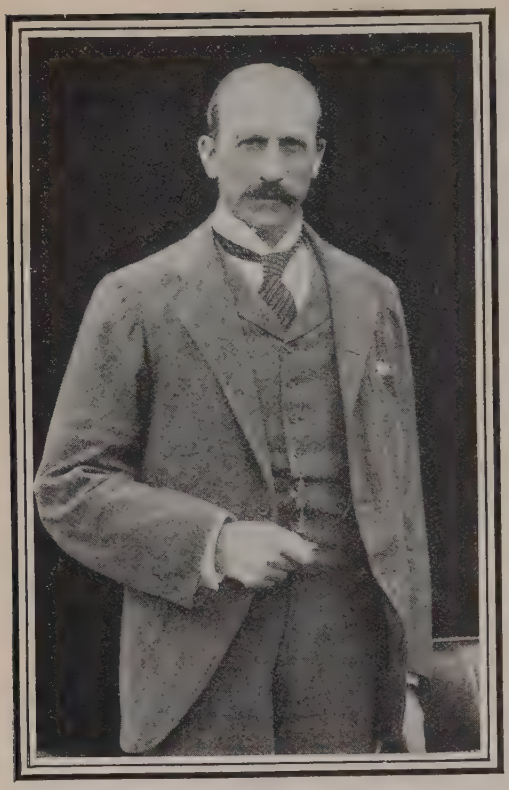
Photograph by Paul Thompson

MR. ASQUITH, THE BRITISH PREMIER

Photograph by Paul Thompson

MR. WINSTON L. S. CHURCHILL, PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF TRADE, AND MRS. CHURCHILL, DURING THE ELECTION CAMPAIGN

On the other side the most conspicuous figure in the election has been Lord Curzon. Lord Curzon is a man of great ability; Chancellor of the University of Oxford, ex-Viceroy of India, in any future Conservative cabinet he would occupy a leading position. He is young, energetic, very industrious, an excellent speaker who has the courage of his opinion, and it was largely due to the pressure exercised by him and Lord Milner upon Lord Lansdowne that the Conservative leader was led to take the fatal step of rejecting the budget. Lord Curzon, although he has an immensity of zeal, is lacking in discretion, and steady Conservatives who have been endeavoring to persuade the country that the rejection of the budget was a very exceptional oc-



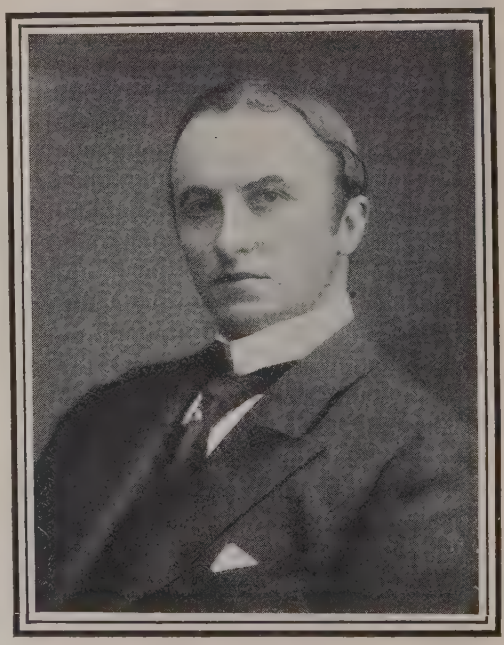
LORD MILNER

(Whose speeches supporting the Lords' position on the budget have attracted world-wide attention)

casion only justified by the revolutionary nature of the budget were dismayed to find this zealous Peer taking the stump in favor of the thesis that the House of Lords was much better qualified to govern the country than the House of Commons. The House of Commons, he says, was not fit to be left alone. It was exposed to the influences of popular passion. It was under the control of the constituencies. The House of Lords, on the other hand, lived in a serener atmosphere, and was indeed much more to be trusted as the guardian of the safety of the empire. He eulogized the hereditary principle, and in short undertook a thoroughgoing campaign in favor of an oligarchy as opposed to democracy. His speeches were too long to be read by the ordinary busy man or to be listened to with patience by an ordinary political meeting. But they succeeded in producing the impression which of all others steady-going old stagers must wish to prevent,—namely, that the action of the Peers was a deliberate assertion on their part of an intention to claim, as a right, paramount authority in the government of the country. The Liberals could hardly believe that the Lords had delivered their enemies so completely into their hands, and they have reckoned Lord Curzon's speeches as amongst the most valuable assets on the side of the ministry.

After Mr. Lloyd-George the most conspicuous figure on the Liberal side is Mr. Winston Churchill, the president of the Board of Trade. Winston Churchill has rather an unpleasant manner, and his personal appearance is not as attractive as that of Mr. Lloyd-George, but as a man of lucid, cogent exposition he is without a rival. He opened the election campaign by a series of speeches in Lancashire in defense of Free Trade, which were masterly in every sense of the word. Few men hit so hard and hit so straight as Winston Churchill. He is heir to the tradition of Lord Randolph, and is largely inspired by the spirit of his father, whose career was cut off at a time when, had he but exercised self-control, it seemed probable he would have become Prime Minister of England. Winston has a faculty of exciting against him the most violent personal antipathy. The Conservatives hate him as a renegade, and he is practically boycotted by men of his own class.

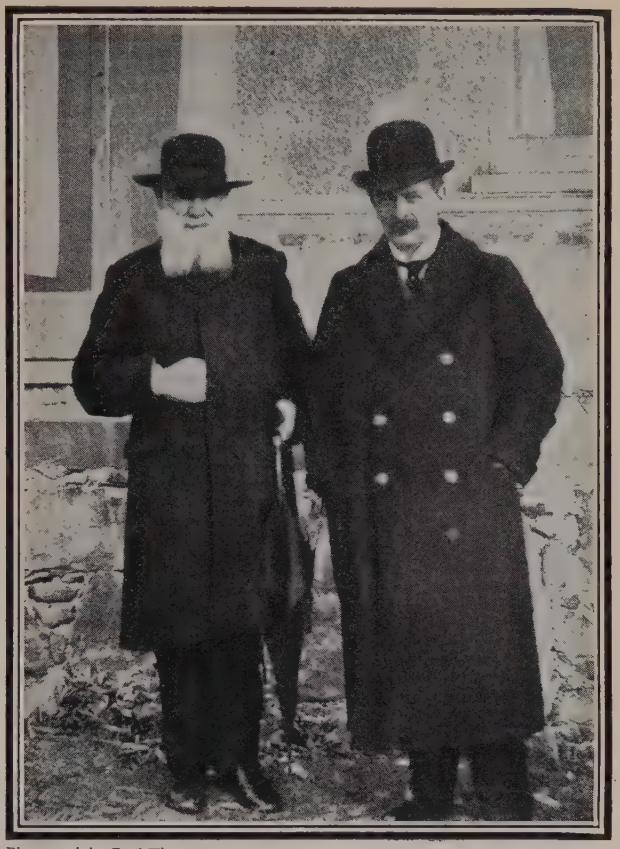
Mr. Lloyd-George and Mr. Winston



LORD CURZON

(Ex-Viceroy of India, and the most conspicuous figure among the peers in the election)

Churchill may be regarded as the great twin brethren in the cause of democracy in the cabinet. The one weak point in both is their failure to realize the importance of maintaining the naval supremacy of Great Britain. Both men are economists, both are devoted to social reform, both hate war and militarism, but with singular blindness they seem to be unable to realize that but for the maintenance of British ascendancy Britain would have to pass like all other European nations under the yoke of conscription. It was their opposition in the cabinet at the beginning of last year to the building of more than four *Dreadnoughts* that brought about a dangerous agitation upon the subject of German naval armaments. They gave in at last, but naturally a great deal of mischief had been done. It is feared in many quarters that should they emerge triumphant from the electoral *tourney* there will be great difficulty in inducing them to assent to the necessary increase of naval expenditure, which must be borne, unless England decides to abandon the supreme position which she has occupied since the battle of Trafalgar.



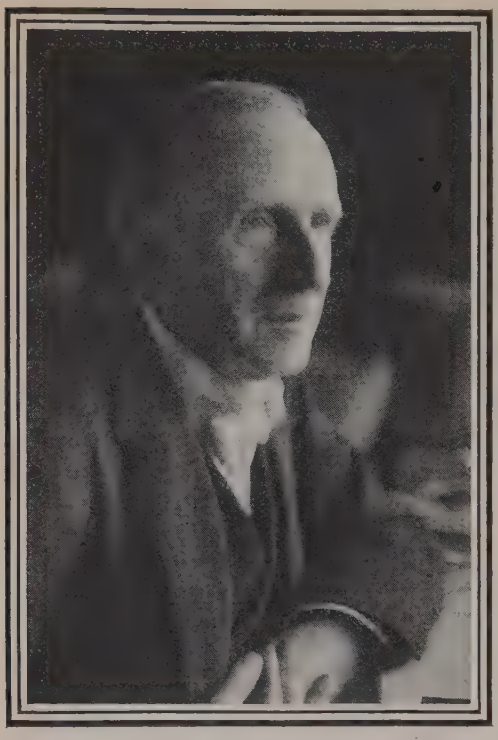
Photograph by Paul Thompson

MR. LLOYD-GEORGE AT HIS HOUSE IN WALES

(The Chancellor stands beside his uncle, Mr. Richard Lloyd, by whom he was adopted and educated after his father's death)

After Lord Curzon on the Unionist side there is only one man who has made any mark in the election, and that is Lord Milner. Lord Curzon left India in a state of violent discontent; Lord Milner thrust South Africa into a war, the evil effect of which has been effaced by the simple process of abandoning South Africa to the rule of the Dutch majority. These two pro-consuls are taking a leading part in the platform war. Lord Milner is a remarkable man, but is rather forbidding on the platform. His speeches are haughty rather than persuasive, and without going to the length of Lord Curzon in praise of hereditary rule, he has devoted himself chiefly to an exposition of the virtues of Protection. The odd thing about Lord Milner is that he was born in Germany of a family of which his father was the only naturalized British subject. He was brought up under the dominion of the Bismarckian idea. to which indeed his policy in South Africa may be directly traced. But, notwithstanding his military imperialism of blood and iron, he is and always has been a Socialist at heart. It was his articles in the *Pall Mall Gazette* which paved the way for the adoption of municipal Socialism by the London County Council, and although he is on the stump against the budget there is no man who is more ready to go far in the Socialist direction than Lord Milner.

We now come to the titular leaders of the parties, Mr. Asquith and Mr. Balfour. Mr. Asquith is a powerful forensic. He argues with directness and force. His ideas are clear and his repute good, but he is singularly without the capacity to rouse popular enthusiasm. He is not in any sense a magnetic man. His speeches are dignified, powerful, and argumentative, but they seldom glow with passion and are never radiated either by the lambent light of genial humor or the glow

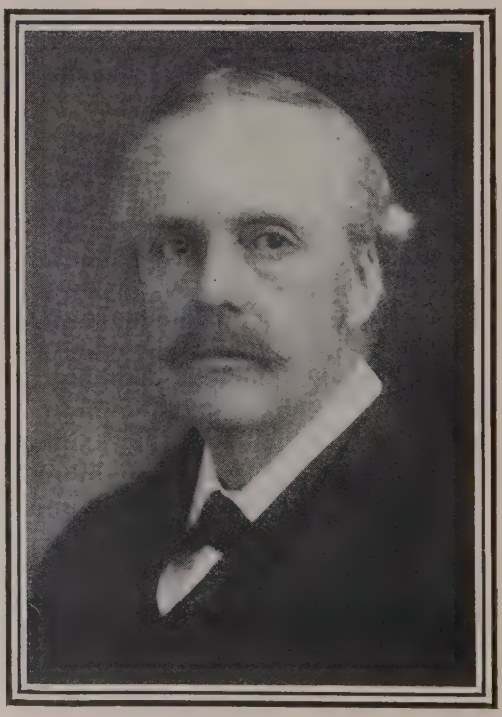


LORD MORLEY

(Secretary of State for India, who was prominent in the budget debate)

of an imagination. His speech at the Albert Hall, although a finished performance, did not appeal to the heart of the hearer as did the plain, straightforward discourse of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman in the same hall four years before. Personally Mr. Asquith is a tender-hearted man, and he felt acutely as a family bereavement the death of the Hon. Archie Gordon, Lord Aberdeen's son, who was about to be married to Miss Asquith.

If Mr. Asquith was crippled by bereavement at the opening of the election Mr. Balfour was hardly less unfortunate in being laid on the shelf by one of his frequently recurring colds during the whole of the month of December. It was not until the beginning of January that Mr. Balfour was able to take the field in earnest, but a man with much greater energy than his would have found it difficult to make up for lost time. His address to the electors of the city was a long, platitudinous discourse, which contained little or nothing of what was looked for by the country. In case Mr. Balfour should be called to the ministry again, his first duty would be to frame a budget. He has left the country entirely in the dark as to how he would choke the deficit. He alludes gingerly to Tariff Reform, but does not even pretend that the levying of any taxes on imports would supply the revenue needed for the service of the state. In his heart Mr. Balfour is well known to be a free trader, but he is pushed along at the head of the impetuous rabble of his so-called followers and compelled to argue in favor of a cause which in his heart of hearts he thoroughly despises, but reconciles with his conscience by professing to have invented an exceptional brand of Tariff Reform of his own devising, to which he is entirely devoted. But as no one knows what that particular brand is like, and as he admits it would neither fill the Exchequer nor provide employment for the out-of-works, it is regarded with scant enthusiasm by the thoroughgoing protectionists, who look for inspiration to Mr. Chamberlain's sick bed at Birmingham. "We mean to win," said Mr. Balfour, amid the cheers of his supporters with his usual enthusiasm, but he immediately spoiled it by adding the damning clause of "sooner or later."



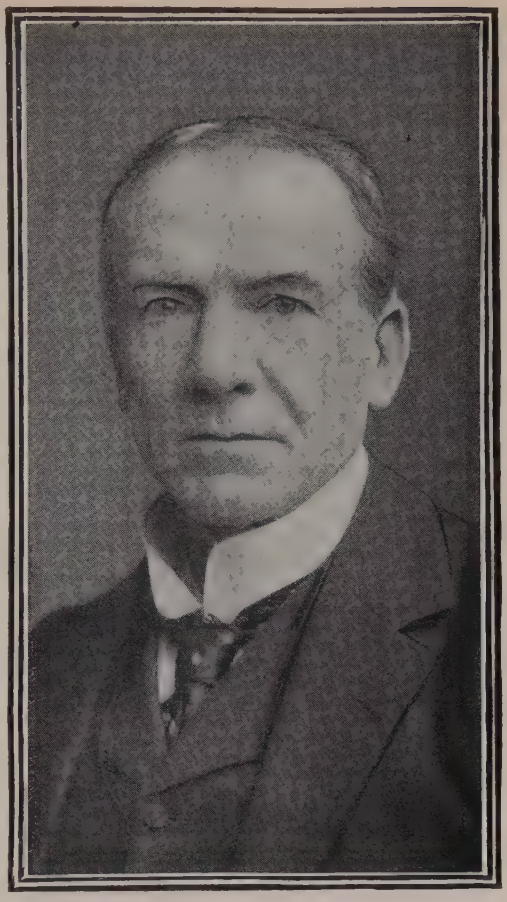
MR. ARTHUR J. BALFOUR

(Leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons, and head of the Unionist forces in the campaign)

In the meantime Mr. Chamberlain was assuring his supporters that it was not a question of "sooner or later"; it must be now or never, for if this election were lost the cause of Tariff Reform was doomed. Mr. Balfour, with all his faults, is far and away the ablest man in the Conservative ranks. He is the only possible leader, and although his dialectic is sometimes rather wire-drawn he is intrepid, versatile, and moreover commands the hearty admiration and affection of many among his opponents. Among his lieutenants Mr. Austen Chamberlain has distinguished himself chiefly by committing himself to a policy of food taxation which is diametrically opposed to that advocated by his father. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, who although unable to speak on the platform, can still sign his name to letters composed either for him or by him in his sick-room, maintains stoutly that whatever fresh taxation is put on food must be counterbalanced by an equivalent remittance of the taxation at present levied on tea, coffee, and sugar. If this is done Tariff Reform will not raise the money that is needed,—a fact that Mr. Austen Chamberlain, as prospective Chancellor of the Exchequer, recognizes. Hence, he has publicly indorsed the program of the Birmingham *Daily Post* in which new food taxes to the extent of $40,000,000 are put on the bread and meat of the people without any corresponding reduction of the taxation on tea, coffee, and sugar.

On the Liberal side the most thoughtful speeches, which have weighed most with the moderate men, are those of Sir Edward Grey, who, however, has been very badly reported in the press. Mr. Haldane unfortunately has been ill. John Burns has devoted himself with immense energy to fighting his own battle at Battersea, which he describes as the cock-pit of the general election.

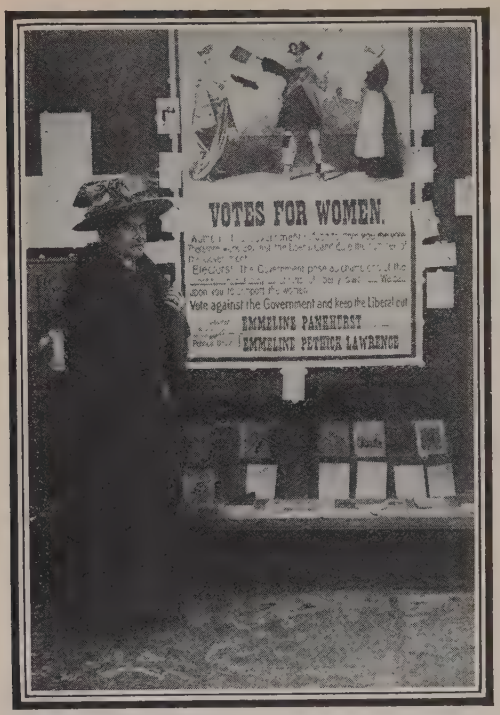
I come now to the most remarkable feature of the present election, and that is, the appearance of the Peers on the platform. As a rule, Peers take little part in an election campaign, and after the issue of the writ they withdraw from the scene. But about a score of them have been spurred into a fanatic display of activity over what they regard as a threat addressed to their order. It would perhaps have better served their cause if they had abstained from appearing on the platform. In the first case only about twenty of the whole 600 venture to say a word on behalf of their hereditary privileges. Of these very few justify the exceptional position which they occupy in the legislature. One, Earl Cawdor, past First Lord of the Admiralty, made himself ridiculous by declaring that Home Rule might result in the conversion of Belfast into a German dockyard. Others were mercilessly heckled by democratic audiences, and "gems from the Peers" formed day by day amusing reading in the columns of the Radical newspapers. Lord Rothschild bestirred himself to some purpose, but taken as a whole the Peers on the platform have not done much for their party.



HON. ALEXANDER URE, LORD ADVOCATE OF SCOTLAND

(One of the new personalities brought forward by the campaign)

The only new personality which the election has thrown up is Mr. Ure, the Advocate-General of Scotland, who is a first-class fighting man, and who excited the furious indignation of the Tory party by declaring that if they relied upon tariff reform as an alternative to the budget taxes they would never be able to pay old-age pensions. This was



Photograph by Paul Thompson

A SUFFRAGETTE WORKER IN NEWCASTLE

(Showing election methods used by the women)

admitted to be true by Mr. Balfour himself when he confessed that if he had to fill the treasury he would have to fall back on Mr. Lloyd-George's taxes, with the exception, he added, of those on land and liquor. But so sensitive are the Conservatives on the subject of old-age pensions that Mr. Balfour so far forgot himself as to brand Mr. Ure's statement on the subject as a "frigid and premeditated lie."

THE ISSUES

The one dominant issue was the question whether the People are to govern themselves or be governed by the Peers. The Unionists, with the exception of Lord Curzon, endeavored to evade this issue. They protested that the Peers had only claimed a right to reject a budget until the electors had pronounced in its favor. They pleaded that if the Peers are not allowed to reject a budget which they admit they are not allowed to amend, the House of Commons can pass any measure it pleases by the simple process of including it in a finance bill. Therefore, they argue, without the right to refer a budget to the vote of the electorate, the second chamber is practically effaced and the denial of this right commits the country to government by a single chamber. The real issue, therefore, they contended, was whether Great Britain should be governed by two chambers or by one.

To this the Liberals replied that as a matter of fact the House of Lords had never ventured to refuse supplies to the Crown until now, that the "uncontrolled" right of the Commons to deal with all financial questions had been asserted by an unbroken succession of statesmen of all parties from Pym to Arthur Balfour, and that this invariable usage of the Constitution had left the two-chamber system intact. As for the fear that the Commons might evade the veto of the Peers by tacking revolutionary legislation to a finance bill, it was derided as chimerical and fantastic. Lord St. Aldwyn, the chief authority on finance in the Unionist ranks, had borne explicit testimony to the fact that there was no tacking in the present budget. To reverse the unbroken practice of centuries from an imaginary fear that it might hereafter be abused was therefore declared to be a mere subterfuge.

The Liberals pointed out that the right to reject a budget even when masked by a pretended desire to consult the constituencies carried with it the usurpation of the right of the Crown to fix the date of a dissolution and the right of the Commons to an exclusive control of the executive government. To attempt in this way to graft a power to insist on a *plebiscite* whenever the Peers dislike a budget is to place in their hands the absolute control of the government. No Liberal budget is ever liked by the Lords. They would, therefore, be tempted to reject any Liberal budget in the hope that a new election might place their own friends in power. Hence, a Liberal House of Commons would only have a one-year's lease of life, whereas a Conservative House would have the full benefit of the Septennial act. Hitherto no adverse vote of the House of Lords had ever affected the tenure of power of a Liberal Government. Their votes of censure were ignored because the Lords could not stop supplies. Concede to them that power and the House of Lords, unrepresentative and indissoluble, will become at once the dominant factor in the Constitution.

This involves the summary abolition of the two-party system of government which has lasted for centuries. As the Conservatives are always in a majority of four or five to one in the House of Lords, to admit that

House to a right of life and death over the executive government is forever to banish the Liberals from power. Hence, the Liberals were not only fighting for the maintenance of the fundamental principle of representative government, they were fighting against a proposal permanently to exclude themselves as a party from any share in the future government of the country.

This was the issue upon which the Liberals fought the battle, and all the efforts of their opponents to obscure its significance only led to a more determined and a more impassioned effort to force the fighting upon this supreme issue. To vote for the Peers was to render all Liberal votes valueless in the future. To vote for the Peers in order to escape the budget was to play the part of Caiaphas who bribed Judas to betray his Master, for every Unionist candidate, if elected to the House of Commons, would go to that House pledged to betray not only its most precious privileges but its very life and soul.

The second great issue before the country was the budget itself, the rejection of which precipitated the election. The facts are simple. The necessity of providing $45,000,000 for old-age pensions and an extra $15,000,000 for additional battleships, together with other increased expenditures in other departments, confronted the Chancellor of the Exchequer with the necessity of imposing new taxation to the tune of $80,000,000. Mr. Lloyd-George provided for this deficit by proposing to increase the death duties, to increase the income tax and to impose a supertax on incomes above £5000 a year. It is admitted by Mr. Balfour that if he were called to office to-morrow he would be compelled to levy these taxes for the necessities of the state. They produce more than $50,000,000 of the money that is needed. But besides these taxes Mr. Lloyd-George proposed to levy taxes on mineral royalties, and on undeveloped land, and appropriate 20 per cent. of the unearned increment of land. He also proposed to increase the license duties charged upon the dealers in intoxicants. It was these two classes of taxes which roused the fury of the House of Lords. To value the land of the country so that no landlord should in future be able to enrich himself with the unearned increment of its value without paying 20 per cent. of such value created by the community to the community was denounced as rank Socialism. But the wrath of the landlords of broad acres was nothing to the fury of the liquor dealers. They insisted upon the rejection of the budget, and it was to their dictation that Lord Lansdowne succumbed. The whole fight, therefore, turned on the land and the liquor taxes.

The land taxes are undoubtedly popular with the masses who own no land, and if they stood alone they would have no chance of rejection by a popular vote. But they do not stand alone. The landlords of the tavern and the gin-shop are a formidable force. Every public house was converted into a Unionist committee room. The subscriptions of the brewers supplied unlimited funds for corrupting the venal and drunken section of the electorate. The liquor dealers and the brewers constituted the backbone, and they supplied the only valuable electoral factor upon which the Unionists could count at this election.

After the budget the next great issue was that of Free Trade versus Protection. The rejection of the budget was decreed by Mr. Chamberlain because, as he frankly declared, its acceptance would be the death knell of Tariff Reform. Marvelous is the tenacity with which the Tory party clings to the notion that the shortest cut to prosperity is to impose taxes upon everything that the weekly wage-earner purchases from abroad. To raise wages, they contend, you must diminish their purchasing power. In America, as Mr. Carnegie is never weary of pointing out, protective duties do not touch the bread and meat of the working classes. They are fed from their own soil. But the British worker is fed from abroad. To levy import duties on bread and meat which he imports from the United States and from the Colonies,—for all pretence of letting Colonial produce in free has been abandoned,—is immediately to raise the cost of living in every poor man's household not only by the increased price of the foodstuffs which pay duty but by an equal increase that would at once be charged upon all home-grown stuff. To ask the weekly wage-earner to pay more for his daily bread in order to save the pockets of the great landowners or the wealthy brewer is not likely to elicit a very cordial response.

Recognizing the hopelessness of recommending their nostrum on its merits the Unionists have conceived the curious idea of asserting that all the miseries of unemployment will be cured by the magic of Tariff Reform. Unemployment is a great evil which at present is diminishing. Trade has improved since the budget was introduced, and it is calculated that there are at the out-

side only 300,000 out-of-works, as against 14,000,000 persons regularly employed. To introduce a protectionist tariff would at once cut up by the roots the enormous amount of employment afforded by the position which England enjoys as being the free mart of the world. The German Colonial Minister being asked when in London what he would do if England took to monkeying with Free Trade replied: "I would double the wharf, dock, and warehouse accommodations at Hamburg and Bremen, and in twelve months Germany would have become what England is to-day, the free market and clearing-house of the world." The Tariff Reformers are all at sixes and sevens among themselves, even upon the vital question of the taxes on food. The Liberals, on the other hand, are absolutely united in favor of Free Trade.

A vigorous effort was made by Lord Northcliffe (Sir Alfred Harmsworth) to use his vast combination of newspapers (including the London *Times*) to create a scare of a German invasion in the hope, the Liberals contended, that he might thereby draw a red herring across the track. The attempt failed by the very extravagance of its advocates. To point to the menace of the increasing fleet of Germany was all very well, but when it was argued that we must therefore raise a trained army of 2,000,000 Englishmen in order to defend the French frontier against a possible German attack, John Bull shrugged his shoulders and passed on.

There is more substance in the cry that is raised against Home Rule. The Liberal party is irretrievably committed to Home Rule. But so long as the House of Lords exists with its veto intact Home Rule is the vainest of vain dreams. The moment there is a prospect that the veto of the Lords may be abolished Home Rule enters the field of practical politics. The renewed pledge given by Mr. Asquith to the Home Rulers roused the fighting anti-Irish anti-Catholic element to activity. But the electorate only thinks of one thing at one time. And that one thing at this election was not Home Rule for Ireland but the question whether both England and Ireland are to be subjected to the rule of the Peers.

The question of women's suffrage, which has been so prominently brought forward by the militant tactics of the suffragettes, will not play an important part in the results of the election. This may disappoint many earnest advocates of women's suffrage, but it was inevitable. For what the women are fighting for is the vote. But the issue at the general election was whether any vote was to be of any value at all for man or woman. If the Liberals were to be defeated the value of the vote would be so depreciated that it would be hardly worth while to go to the polls. Of necessity, therefore, women's suffrage receded into the background. This tendency was further accentuated by the fact that the militant section, headed by Mrs. Pankhurst, refusing to recognize the fact that even the most anti-feminist Liberal was maintaining the value of the vote, issued word of command that her section must offer an uncomprising opposition to every Liberal candidate in the field, and especially to the Liberal ministers. This irritated the party from whom the women really draw the majority of their support. Practically it will not matter very much. The suffragettes had during the past year or two made a great impression at the by-elections, because they were able to concentrate the whole of their forces upon the constituency where the election was taking place. But now that 500 constituencies are being contested there were not enough militant suffragettes to go round. At the last Parliament about 400 members had given more or less perfunctory pledges to support women's suffrage, with very little intention of giving effect to their promises by their votes in Parliament. In the new Parliament it is safe to say there will be a much smaller number of members pledged, but those who do pledge themselves will mean business.

It may be said that the Socialists, pure and simple, cut a comparatively small figure in the contest, as they were merged in the general body of those who were contending under the Liberal leadership for the principle that the broadest shoulders should bear the heaviest burden, and that the power of taxation should be used as far as possible to equalize opportunity and to redress the inevitable inequalities of fortune. Unionists did their utmost to convince the electorate that the only alternatives are Tariff Reform or Socialism. But it is pointed out with great force and effect that every protectionist tariff is in its essence Socialistic, inasmuch as it uses the power of the state in order to prevent the free exercise by the individual of his own judgment as to how he can best promote his own interest. Protection, indeed, has been well defined in France as the Socialism of the bourgeoise as opposed to the Socialism of the proletariat. The real alternative be-

fore the nation is not Protection or Socialism, but Socialism or Social Reform.

The only measure which can be described as Socialistic passed by the late government was that of granting a pension of $1.25 a week to every old person over seventy years of age, whose means were inadequate to support existence, but so far from opposing old-age pensions the Unionists resented as the most abominable libel the accusation that they entertained any idea of terminating the system. Some Unionist candidates, indeed, protested that they wished to go further in this direction, but all of them without a single exception declared that they regarded old-age pensions as an unalterable part of the social and political economy of Great Britain.

It is the fashion in some quarters to represent this contest as a pitched battle between the haves and the have nots. This is a gross exaggeration. It is no doubt true that the wealthier classes, especially the landed classes, are more conservative than the weekly wage-earners. But there are many rich men on the Liberal side, and, strange though it may seem, there are many of the poorest classes who vote with the Unionists. This is due to many causes, among which two only need be mentioned. First, the influence of the purveyors of drink upon their more or less ne'er-do-well customers, and, secondly, the pressure that has been brought to bear by landlords and others to compel their dependents to vote for the master. This illegitimate exercise of the tremendous power that is wielded by those who have multitudes of dependents whose daily bread depends upon their retaining their situations, was used to the uttermost. The screw was put on mercilessly, and considerable scandal was created by the open menace of wealthy dukes and others that if the Liberals were returned to power they would incontinently reduce their establishments, cut down their wages, and stop their subscriptions to charities. There remains only one factor to be noticed, and that is the influence that would be brought to bear by the clergy who know that their monopoly of religious teaching in 1800 villages in the country would be endangered if the veto of the House of Lords were abolished. Further stimulus was given to clerical zeal on the Conservative side by the knowledge that the disestablishment of the Church of the minority in Wales occupies a conspicuous place in the Liberal program. When we come to survey the scene as a whole we find on one side the majority of the great landlords, the great brewers, and to a certain extent the great financiers supported by the liquor sellers and the clergy, for now as always the alliance between the purveyors of things spiritual and things spirituous is very close in this old country. Added to these are those manufacturers and agriculturists who hope that the imposition of a tariff would give them a monopoly of the home market, and enable them to raise prices as against the consumer. On the other side are arrayed the Nonconformist and the workingman. These two classes form the great body of the Liberal host. They are directed by a ministry which has astonished even its own friends by its solidarity, its energy, and its courage. They can depend also upon the shipping, banking, and industrial interests which are threatened by Protection. For the number of those who hope to profit by the introduction of a tariff is comparatively small compared with those who would suffer by any interference with Free Trade.

To these serried hosts of Nonconformists, workingmen, Independent Labor men, Free Traders, etc., must be added for this election the Irish contingent, which, owing to the conflict between the denominational interests of the priests and the national enthusiasm of the Irish, will in this election have voted practically solid on the Liberal side.

THE POSSIBLE OUTCOME

By the time this article is published the result of the election will be known. A Conservative victory would bring about an immediate change in the whole personnel of the administration, and the House of Lords would take its place as the dominant force in the British Constitution. This would be a revolution greater than any that has taken place in England since the fall of the Stuarts. On the other hand, a Liberal triumph would give rise to a very interesting question. Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd-George have publicly pledged themselves not to take office until two things have been secured. First, that the uncontrolled right of the Commons to deal with finances shall receive statutory recognition, and, secondly, that the House of Commons shall have power to pass whatever laws it deems necessary within the duration of a single Parliament. This is to be effected by the abolition of the veto of the Lords on legislation.

THE HOUSEKEEPER AND THE RISING COST OF LIVING

BY AGNES C. LAUT

YOU do not need to quote arguments to convince the average householder of the exorbitant advance in the cost of living. While Conservationists such as Mr. Hill have been predicting such an advance,—Mr. Hill calls it "constriction,"—and economists have been arguing how the abundance of gold is really the cause of the scarcity of the wherewithal to pay the grocery bill, the average householder has not been theorizing at all. He has been too busy stretching ends that refuse to meet. He has been dealing with facts in terms of the dollar bill,—paying the piper for this dervish dance of figures, up and up and up the scale of living till some of the prices have gone out of sight altogether,—roast beef, for instance, for the man with small income. While the theorists have been talking in millions and billions, the householder has been paying 10 cents more on every pound of steak, and 7 cents on every pound of bacon, and 5 cents on every pound of ham, and 25 cents on every bag of flour, and 2 cents on every pound of tea, and 10 cents on every pound of butter, and so on up and up and up the entire scale of living, with no certainty that matters will be any better next year and an almost certainty that the increase in prices this year over last will be duplicated in next year over this.

HIGHER THAN IN TIME OF WAR

Ten years ago when the price of staples began to move up a cent and 2 cents a pound it was felt, but not as burdensome. There was no outcry; but now that the increase in the simplest articles for mere subsistence is marked not by cents and fractions of a cent but by 25 and 50 and 100 and, in the case of lard, actually 200 per cent., this business of the increased cost of living falls on the average wage-earner, especially the office wage-earner who has no labor union to send his market value up,—falls with the heavy hand of a tax collector in time of war, or tribute levied by a conqueror. As a matter of fact, with the exception of two or three staples like cotton and wheat, prices are higher today in America than they have ever been in time of war. Never has the country been so prosperous. Never has there been vaster abundance of all the staples supplying human subsistence; yet never in the history of America have all the staples of living gone to such a level of extortionate prices.

INCREASE FROM 1909 TO 1910

Take cotton, for example; within the last year it has reached and remained at prices (15 cents) almost twice as high as the average for the past ten years and three times as high as in 1899; but that,—you say,—is the result of an especially short crop and of a "bull" movement. (The bull will tell you in addition to the short crop is the factor of the pagan taking to other garments than those in which he was born,—in a word, the all-pervasive factor of more users than producers.) Very well! Take wool! The Conservationists will tell you that sheep have decreased, owing to the depletion of the grazing ranges; but the fact remains for the man who pays the bills that wool suits for boys, which cost $10 in January, 1909, cost $12.50 in January, 1910; that $12 suits have moved up to $15 in the past year; that $20 serge suits of a year ago are to-day $25. To carpets have been added in the past year what amounts to $1 a rug for the average-sized room. Women's dress goods made from wool show an increase of 12½ per cent. in the past year. These figures are from the Clothiers' Association of America. The householder, the man whose income has not increased as prices for the privilege of being alive increased, begins to feel as if an invisible hand were acquiring the trick of constantly picking his pocket.

FOOD PRICES FOR THE PAST YEAR

When you come to consider prices for food, —essential food, not luxuries,—the scale of increase is one to alarm the man of moderate means. Bacon sliced was 18 cents in 1909. In 1910 it is 25 cents. The increase dips a hand into the householder's pocket every time a pound is purchased and extracts 7 cents. Suppose the man cannot afford that

extra 7 cents,—what does he do under these high prices? He buys just that fraction of a pound less than last year; and the average size of the average family being computed at five as it is in all calculations, each of those five eats just that fraction less of necessary nourishment than last year. A year ago ham in New York was 15 cents. Now it is 20, and the buyer must pay 33 per cent. more, or eat 33 per cent. less. Is it surprising that the Russell Sage investigations of the poor prove that just and exactly as income decreases or prices increase, the poor eat just and exactly that proportion less of the food most needed to make muscle and brawn,—namely, meat?

In New York City in 1908, according to prices current as reported in trade journals, you could buy a porterhouse for 24 or 25 cents, now it is 28 and 30; or a sirloin for 20, now it is 24; or a round steak for 18, now it is 20; or corned beef for 14, now it is 16. Salt pork three years ago cost from $16 to $18 a barrel. Now it is $25 to $28. Lard represents an advance of 60 per cent., pork 15 per cent., poultry from 20 to 50 per cent. in the past year. Have salaries advanced at the same pace, from 15 to 60 per cent.? Not that we have heard! Imagine the outcry and the stoppage of industry if wage-earners demanded what the increase in the cost of living demands of them?

THE INCREASE FOR A TERM OF TEN YEARS

When you come to consider the increase for a term of years, the figures are absolutely appalling. Take the period from 1900 to 1910, the most redundantly prosperous period in the history of America:

	1900.	1910.	Increase. Per cent.
Flour, per barrel	$3.25	$6.00 to $7.00	100
Eggs, per dozen	.22	.38 to .50	70 to 100
Butter, per pound	.25	.38 to .40	50 to 60
Beef, per pound	.18 to .20	.24 to .30	20 to 50
Lamb, per pound	.15 to .18	.18 to .22	20
Poultry, per lb	.12 to .14	.22 to .28	75 to 100
Potatoes, per bushel	.50	1.00	100
Fuel, wood	$3.00 to 4.00	6.00 to 8.00	100
Fuel, coal	5.00	6.75	35
Lumber, according to grade			40 to 100

Against these exorbitant increases for the privilege of being alive stand slight recessions in the prices of ribbons and silks and fruits; but you can neither clothe yourself in ribbons nor diet on fruits. While the prices of luxuries have fallen back slightly, the prices of the necessities—food, clothing, lumber—have leaped forward at a pace beyond the power of the average earner.

"I consider the increased cost of living one of the gravest problems we have to meet among the poor," said a charity worker recently.

"It is impossible for the wage-worker to make both ends meet. I cannot see how the clerk who must pay the present high prices can support a family," said Mr. McDonald, a Standard Oil financier.

"We have increased our dinner menu prices exactly 25 per cent. all round," declared the manager of a well-known New York family hotel, "and that will not cover the increased cost of food. We figure the increase this year at 40 per cent.; so in spite of higher rates for dinner, we have to cut expenses to meet the increase. We are doing with one switchboard girl where we used to have three, and two office men where we used to have five; and so all through the house,—no cut of wages, but a doubling up of work at the same wages."

"Ten years ago," said a traveler, "you could get the best meal you could desire on any train from the C. P. R. in Canada to the Santa Fé in the Southwest for 75 cents. To-day, the cheapest table d'hôte meal you can get on any of those trains is $1; and for the dinner, which used to cost you 75 cents table d'hôte, you now pay à la carte from $1.50 to $2. Ten years ago you could get a porterhouse for 60 or 80 cents; now it is from $2 to $3. You have either to eat less or spend more."

Says the Russell Sage Foundation Report on the standard of living for 1907: "It requires no statistics to bring proof that $600 and $700 is wholly inadequate to maintain a proper standard of living, and no self-respecting family should be asked or expected to live on such an income. The committee believes that with an income of between $700 and $800 a family can barely support itself, provided it is subject to no extraordinary expenditure."

HOW THE INCREASE AFFECTS THE INDIVIDUAL INCOME

Now the average income of the worker in the United States does not begin to come up to $800 a year. It is under $600; but that average is pulled down to the low figure by minors, boys and girls working at small pay, and living at home. Averaging up the earnings of the adult heads of a house, 75 per cent. of all earnings come between $600 and $900. How does that income work out on the increased scale of living? Take the family unit as five,—two parents and three children, or two parents and other relatives.

Rent first,—rents and land values have risen with the rising scale. A few years ago a family of five might easily have obtained house or apartments in a typical city at $14 or $16 or $18 a month. To-day if they would live in decent sanitary surroundings,—neither dark rooms nor overcrowding,—they must pay from $25 to $30 a month,—a slap $300 a year for rent, one-half of the $600 income, one-third of the $900 income. Economists figure there is disaster ahead,—disaster of penury or pension,—if rent absorb more than one-eighth or one-sixth of total income. Owing to higher cost of living it is here absorbing from a third to a half of the total income.

It has been figured out over and over by practical workers that where income ranges from $600 to $900, at present prices 50 per cent. must go with a family of five for food,—that is, of the larger income $450 goes for food. Of the total income of $900, $750 has gone for rent and food, leaving only $150 for clothing, illness, fuel, carfare, education, insurance, incidentals. Now it is also figured out at present prices that $100 is the absolute minimum at which a family of five can be clothed. I may say I do not believe that figure myself, unless the smaller members of the family spend most of their time in bed. That leaves $50 for illness, fuel, carfare, insurance, education, and such very important and to-be-expected incidentals as a visit from the stork.

Or figure that food matter out in two other ways! Hotels and big catering houses of the modest sort figure $2 the weekly cost of food,—meat, milk, groceries, fruit,—for each guest. This is for frugal fare. Multiply your family of five by $2,—you have a food bill of $40 a month, or almost $500 a year,—leaving a deficit with small incomes, and with the $900 income, leaving only $100 for clothing, fuel, light, education, etc. Or economists have figured from thousands of cases that a man can be poorly fed at 20 cents a day, adequately fed at 25 cents. Multiply 25 cents by your family of five and you get a food bill of $35 plus a month, or $420. Screw it down as you will you cannot keep your family of five in health and keep that food bill below $400. If you screw your food bill lower, somebody is going to be skimped as to brain or brawn. Screw your rent below $300, somebody must pay carfare, or take lodgers, or live in dark rooms for low rent. Pay for plain but adequate food and housing, and you are coming out with a deficit on low incomes, and from the $900 income, with less than $200 left for clothes, carfare, fuel, education, illness, incidentals.

Or you can work that food problem out another way! At many of the big cooking schools to-day, beginners are compelled to cater for themselves with the absolute limit of 6 cents a head per meal for raw material; and they cook plain nutritious meals at that cost. It does not mean three-course breakfasts and two-course luncheons and five-course dinners; but it does mean a sufficiency, all the eater needs of good food. A little later, the limit is raised to 12 cents. Vegetarian restaurants serve meals,—good ones,—at that rate in the West to-day. At the end of the cooking-school course, 27 cents a head is supposed to supply raw material for such a full-course dinner as banqueters might envy. If you will keep strict account of all eatables for a single week,—no waste,—you will find this cooking-school estimate is absolutely accurate for present prices. Now take the lowest possible, the 6-cent limit for bare food handled with all the economy and knowledge of science, which, of course, your low wage-earner is seldom competent to do; for a family of five that limit is 30 cents a meal or 90 cents a day or $6.30 a week or $25 plus a month or $300 plus a year for plainest food. At this rate on plainest fare, food and rent absorb all the income of the small earner and two-thirds of the income of the better earner. Take out of the balance, clothing and the other incidentals of living, and whichever way you look, there is a deficit.

What is the result? Not,—what *will be* the result; but what *is* the result *now?* Lower rents, which mean poorer housing,—the dark room,—the house without bath or sanitation, lodgers and over-crowding; or else, nothing for education, health, recreation; in their place ignorance, charity wards, child labor; or else, most common of all, greatest curse of all because it undermines the sinews of a nation,—just plain underfeeding, tainted food, the food that is cheap because it is poison, four cents a quart for milk with typhoid germs thrown in free and sawdust cereals and meat, as the lady said in "The Third Floor Back" that needs curry to perfume the taint. At a matter of actual investigation, the Russell Sage Foundation shows that just and exactly as the income goes down or cost of living increases, the use of meat decreases, the proportion of dark rooms increases and child

labor increases. This is not the record of a class whose earnings go to tobacco and drink, but of the decent, staid wage-earner.

INCOMES FROM $900 TO $1500

Next most numerous to the $600-$900 class comes the class with incomes from $900 to $1500. Immediately the income increases, three factors in the cost of living jump up. More meat is used because the system is able to get what it craves. Higher prices are paid for housing because the wage-earner can afford the decencies which he craves. More money is spent on clothes. This is not extravagance. It is necessity. Your family where only $100 is spent on clothes supposes $30 for the father,—one suit at $15, one overcoat ($15, which lasts three years), $5, three suits of blue jeans, hats, boots, underwear, $10; $25 for the mother; $45 balance for the children and house linen. Now your man earning $1500 a year must wear something better than blue jeans if in an office, or if a skilled mechanic his work will destroy more than one suit of clothes in a year. Clothing for the higher salaried man averages near $100 each for the parents and $50 each for the children if they are past babyhood; so that rent, food, and clothing have already exhausted more than $1000 of the income. Your higher salaried man may not pay more than $300 rent; but to get better accommodation for that price he must go out of town, which means train and lunch, or up-town, which means carfare. More than $1100 of his income has been absorbed; and there are still the items of education, illness, insurance, recreation, wear and tear, savings. Economists say incomes should be divided into one-sixth for food, one-sixth for rent, one-sixth for clothing and wear and tear, one-sixth for fuel and incidentals, two-sixths for saving and illness. Other economists divide the income into eighths. Divide these $900-$1500 incomes any way you will, at the present cost of living can the wage-earner save his sixth or his eighth? He can and does; but if there are five units to the family, the saving is either not done in the city or done in the city at too great a cost to some of those units. This is the only conclusion consistent with the facts.

WHY SHOULD THE COST OF LIVING INCREASE?

A Survey and Analysis of the Assigned Causes

BY WALTER E. CLARK

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"WHAT is the cause of the steady rise in the cost of living?" This is the question of the day most stimulative of the Yankee talent for guessing.

The leading manufacturer guesses that the trade union, curtailing output and compelling higher wages, is the cause; or he catches up a handful of causes in his phrase "increasing cost of production." The laboring man guesses that giant trusts are dictating rising price schedules. The trust magnate cites farmers' combinations and increasing raw material cost. The farmer guesses short crops and exhaustion of free lands. The politician blames the tariff. The railroad president and the agriculture specialist charge unscientific American farm cultivation. The minister sees rising prices as the sinister shadow of needless extravagance, of riotous living, or of iniquitous speculation. The business man points to industrial and trade activity. The publicist notes the great world growth of population; the psychologist emphasizes the rising standards of consumption and the buoyant hopefulness, causing the American to spend freely; the economist mathematically demonstrates his one best cause, the phenomenal increase in the world's gold supply.

There seems to be no safety in the multitude of counsellors. The guessing symposium in progress on the street, in the press, and in the forum, recognizes at least one common proposition: Cost of living is rising steadily, and this is a serious, every-day reality to the ninety-odd millions of Americans.

It is a timely duty, then, to attempt to find the cause of rising prices. Some simple propositions will aid in the analysis.

Price is the money expression of value. The value of anything, from beef to vegetarian treatises, from calico to wedding silk, from the goat-graced shanty to the Avenue palace, depends upon the supply of that thing and the demand for it. Rising prices, then, of food, of clothing, and of shelter, may be due to an increasing demand for these things, to a diminishing supply of them, or even to a demand increasing more rapidly than a yet increasing supply.

Supply and demand, unanalyzed, is an easy but a well-nigh empty phrase. The factors determining supply or demand must be in evidence to give content to the phrase and acceptability to it as a formula explanatory of rising prices. Here enters the large opportunity for logical error. For example, one factor, truly lessening the supply of a given commodity and therefore tending to raise the price of that commodity, may be illogically broadened and be declared to be the cause of all rising prices. Or, another factor, truly stimulating the demand for some one commodity without logical warrant, may be asserted to be the full cause of the general rise.

For the purpose, then, of testing the adequacy of the various causes proffered for the rising prices, these causes may be divided into two classes. In the first class may be considered those alleged causes which, so far as they operate at all, will affect the cost of living through decreasing the supply of life necessities. Into the second class for consideration may be put those alleged causes which, if they affect the rising cost of living at all, must affect it by increasing the demand for the necessaries of life.

Within the first class of alleged causes are: First, trade unions; second, increased cost of production; third, exhausting resources; fourth, tariff; and fifth, trusts.

Each of these is offered by many guessers as the leading, or even the sole, cause of the rising cost of living. Brief analyses of each of these alleged causes should show their merits or their lack of merits.

THE LABOR UNIONS AND PRICES

First: Does organized labor so curtail output by its restrictions, and so increase cost of production, by its successful demands for higher wage and shorter hours, that, by these trade-union policies, prices of foodstuffs, clothing, and housing, have been rapidly forced upward in the past ten years?

To answer this query fully, there is need of far more elaborate data respecting union restriction of output and respecting the actual productivity of the longer and the shorter working days than statisticians have yet given. Enough is known, though, to challenge trade-union activity as anything like a far-reaching cause for rising prices of prime necessities in the United States.

The March *Bulletin* of the national Department of Commerce and Labor schedules each year the wholesale prices of over 250 different commodities. In the March *Bulletin* for 1909 may be found the following figures, showing the average wholesale price of each commodity, during the year 1908, as compared with 100 for its average price during the base years 1890-1899, inclusive: Corn, 179.9; wheat, 131.8; rye, 148; oats, 189.5; cattle, 126.7; hogs, 127.5; eggs, 142; milk, 129; cotton, 134.8; wool (scoured Ohio fine fleece), 129.6; refined petroleum, 151.7; white pine, 198.1; yellow pine, 165.2.

These are basic food, clothing, lighting, and shelter articles. A rough average for the thirteen articles named shows that they have risen over 50 per cent. above their average price for the ten years of the nineties.

Farmers, ranchers, and timber-men are not organized laborers. What part has organized labor, then, to do with this great rise in these thirteen staples of living?

Again, the *Bulletin's* expert study of wages and of hours of labor in the United States, covering the period from 1890 to 1907, furnishes data of high value here.

The Department has not yet issued its figures for wages and retail prices of food in 1908. The probabilities are strong that when such data for both 1908 and 1909 are issued they will show a reaction to lower levels in 1908 (due to the depression following the panic) and a recovery in 1909 almost to the high levels of 1907. The showing of Bradstreet's Index Numbers of averaged prices for 106 important commodities justifies this prediction. Those Index numbers are: For 1907, $8.9045; for 1908, $8.0094, and for 1909, $8.4556 (the first eleven months averaged).

When we are dealing, then, with the Labor Bureau wage report of July, 1908, covering wages for 1907, we are dealing with the latest expert, national study of wages

in the United States, and we are dealing with wage figures probably very nearly the same as those of the year just closed.

The study covered 350,758 workmen, including higher organized groups, such as the building trades (45,537), the marble and stone workers (5316), the printers (14,461), and the foundrymen and machinists (27,612), and including also municipal workmen (28,179).

This representative wage study shows that the average wages per hour of these 350,758 workmen were in 1907 28.8 per cent. higher than they were on the average for the decade 1890-1899. The study also shows that the average hours per week have decreased 5 per cent., comparing the same period. Allowing for this decrease in hours per week, it appears that the average increase of the full-time weekly earnings of these workmen is but 22.4 per cent.

If this whole 22.4 per cent. wage increase was due entirely to the activity of trade unions, it would be an utterly inadequate explanation of the above-mentioned averaged rise of over 50 per cent. in the thirteen living staples. The inadequacy is further shown when it is noted that trade-union activity did not cause the whole wage rise. For example, the 5463 boot and shoemakers show an average rise of 24.3 per cent., and yet the Boot and Shoemakers' Union is notably ineffective in changing the wages and hours of labor of its members.

Another leading fact may be cited, which impeaches the proposition that trade unions are mainly chargeable with the rising prices. The Twelfth Census of the United States gives 29,285,922 persons, out of the total population of 76,303,387 in 1900, as engaged in gainful occupations.

The total population of the United States, on January 1, 1910, as estimated by the Governors of the respective States and Territories, is 94,049,810. If the same proportion of gainful workers holds now as held in 1900, there are over 36,000,000 gainful workers.

Even granting that the shadowy 2,000,000 membership claimed by the American Federation of Labor is real, there are less than 3,000,000 organized unionists in the United States. The Department of Labor study of wages in 1907 concluded that there had been a rise of 28.8 per cent. in wages per hour, or of 22.4 per cent. in wages for a full-time week's earnings. In each case the comparison is made with the corresponding average for the years 1890-1899. This study considered returns from 350,758 workmen, in all grades and employed in 4169 different establishments. It would seem to be safe, then, to say that general wages in the United States have probably risen somewhat over 20 per cent. in the past twenty years.

Is it reasonable that less than 3,000,000 organized workers can force a wage rise for over 36,000,000? Is it reasonable that, even though the less than 3,000,000 organized workers, all of them, deliberately and considerably restricted their output (and this is far from the fact), such action would have any appreciable effect in raising the prices of the products of the entire 36,000,000 gainful laborers?

Some of the best organized unions do succeed in exercising a monopoly power to secure high wages and short hours for their members. In such cases, the monopoly wage increases the cost of production. The building trades well illustrate this. The nineteen groups of building trades, comprising 45,537 members, show, by the Labor Department report, an average wage per hour 47 per cent. higher, in 1907, than a corresponding average for 1890-1899. When this average is compared with the 28.8 per cent. average rise for all the 350,000 workmen considered the success of the building trades in forcing wage advances becomes obvious. Higher cost of building necessarily resultant from this union wage advance is reflected in higher rents and therefore affects the shelter cost of living.

These monopoly successes for the few most powerful unions are not fairly representative of average wage and hour successes of all unions. Further, the combined membership of all unions represents less than one-twelfth of the gainful labor of the United States. It is therefore manifestly unconvincing to assert that the general rise in cost of living is due to labor-union activity.

Second: "Increased cost of production" is oftentimes cavalierly proffered in explanation of the rising cost of living. This remains an empty phrase unless studies are made of the factors causing this increased cost of production. Several such factors are considered in the analyses of other attempted explanations.

CURTAILMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES

Third: The disappearance of arable free land in the United States, the unscientific cultivation of soil already occupied, and the

exhaustion of natively rich soil and of sources of raw material, such as oil, coal, and timber supplies, are all deserving of weight as factors in increasing the cost of life necessaries. Once a large exporter of foodstuffs and of raw materials, the United States is slowly, steadily approaching the time when it will consume its own entire output of such goods.

In 1898 the United States imported under the general tariff act $1,897,305.37 worth of unfinished lumber. Corresponding figures for 1907 were $14,623,256.02. In 1898 the United States imported 1374 barrels of wheat flour. In 1907 it imported 48,005 barrels. In 1898 the United States imported, under the general classification of pig iron, iron valued at $143,392. In 1907 similar imports were valued at $5,862,930. These figures show the trend of increasing imports of basic goods.

Per capita production of cereals in the United States shows to-day only a slight increase over the period 1876-1885. In wheat there is a per capita decrease from 8.3 bushels, average in 1876-1885, to 7.9 in 1906-1908. The cattle product per capita in 1890 was .92 of an animal. By 1900 this ratio had decreased to .69 of an animal. Since then there has been a marked further decline. The cattle product has hardly increased at all, while population has increased, according to the estimate given above, more than 20 per cent. The per capita number of sheep and of swine have also steadily decreased.

Many of the great range herds of cattle have been broken up by the denial of old-time range freedom and by the encroachment of the farmers. This increases the number of corn-fed cattle. Such feeding is more expensive and, in turn, it reacts to greatly increase the demand for corn. This helps to explain the rise from 28-cent corn in 1895-1900 to the 60-cent corn of recent years.

The United States, then, faces the practical disappearance of desirable free land, the breaking up of the cattle ranges, the greater demand for stock feed, the exploitation to decreasing returns of the native richness of the Mississippi soil, the mowing of the Michigan, the Oregon, and the Washington forests, and the draining of the oil-well gushers of the three great oil-producing territories. Such facts as these clearly account, in part, for the rise in breadstuffs, meat, building supplies, and fuel and lighting oil.

The rise in price for thirteen of these basic food, fuel, and building supplies was shown above to roughly average 50 per cent. The general rise in price for the entire 258 commodities listed by the Labor Department, and for a corresponding period, was 22.8 per cent. At least the excess average price rise for these thirteen staples, above the level to which general prices have risen, must be ascribed to such factors as disappearing cattle ranches, unscientific soil-tillage, and exhaustion of the virgin gifts of a marvelously rich, new land.

There need be no fear, however, that this garden land will fail to produce amply for the needs even of a many-multiplied population. Experts assure the farmer that with the adoption of scientific, intensive methods of cultivation, he can multiply the average yield of cotton per acre by three; that of wheat by two. The yield of corn, oats, rye, and barley, may be as easily increased 50 per cent. Forestry experts are demonstrating the high and the permanent profit returns from scientific forestration.

Transition to the intensive methods is slowly made. When made, the substituted method is more expensive. Whatever changes may come in the future in the other factors which affect prices in the United States, it is altogether unlikely that these basic foodstuffs and the raw materials for clothing and building will ever again be relatively as cheap as they were in the closing quarter of the nineteenth century. The disappearance of the cream products of rarely rich new land is a real and a probably permanent factor in rising cost of living.

EFFECT OF THE TARIFF ON PRICES

Fourth: There are many believers in the doctrine that the United States high customs tariff explains the rising prices.

That a high and protective tariff explains high prices, for many commodities, may be easily shown. That the present range of duties accounts for the recent great rise in general prices, is an untenable proposition.

Such facts as these confront those who believe that the tariff is the cause of rising prices: (1) Prices have rapidly risen in free-trade Great Britain also. (2) The United States customs duties have been much the same since the days of the Civil War. With the exception of depression years, during the days of the abortive Wilson bill, high protection has been the deliberate policy since the middle seventies. Yet the tendency of general prices was downward from 1875 to

1896. (3) Some of the great rises have occurred in the prices of such commodities as the cereals, where the duty is only nominal, and lumber, where the $2 per-thousand-feet is very low. (4) While the tariff rates have remained uniform, the commodity prices have been widely variant. For example, the duty on wheat has not changed since 1890, from 25 cents per bushel, except under the Wilson bill, when it was 20 per cent. ad valorem; yet during the last twenty years wheat has fluctuated between its lowest annual average price, $.5587 per bushel in 1894, to its highest annual average price of $1.039 per bushel in 1904.

The high protective tariff doubtless compels consuming America to pay higher rates for many goods than it would have to pay were the duties lowered or abolished. It does not appear, however, that there should be added to this heavy charge against the tariff the additional count that it has any direct causal relation to the recent rising prices.

The tariff system is thought by some to be indirectly responsible for the rise in prices because it has fostered trusts. It offered such lucrative opportunities for domestic manufacturers that too many enterprises were launched. Bitter competition followed. To avoid this competition, and to prevent producers' losses, the great industrial combinations were formed.

Once formed, and in substantial control each of its own kind of product for the whole of the United States, the trusts are greatly aided by the high tariff. They can take full advantage of the protective duty margin. The home consumer loses his only safeguard against extortion prices, for the former real competition in each protected industrial field disappears as the trusts develop. The tariff, then, may be said to furnish the conditions under which the industrial trust may thrive and may have the magnificent American home market at its mercy.

INFLUENCE OF THE TRUSTS

Fifth: Have the great industrial trusts abused this tariff-given power over the home market? Have they raised their prices out of all proportion to the general rise of prices? Are the prices of protected trust-made goods higher than such prices would be under the same tariff conditions if there were free competition instead of trust control?

Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks made for the Industrial Commission a detailed study of the course of prices for the products of the Oil, the Whisky, the Tin Plate, the Sugar, the Steel, and the Wire Trusts. From this study it is clear that the trusts have somewhat increased the profit margin above that which did obtain and which probably would obtain now under competitive production. It is to be remembered that the great industrial combinations are excellent cost-cheapening devices. These cheapened costs account in part, or perhaps altogether, for a larger profit differential to the trusts.

Trusts, then, have held a firm price level and have not shared with the public the gains of their cheaper production. It is a popular belief that the trusts have arbitrarily used their whole price-raising power to extort further gains than those affected by their cost-saving. They are, therefore, charged with responsibility in a large degree, or wholly, for the recent rise in prices. The price records do not appear to sustain this charge.

The Labor Department index number shows that general prices have risen 22.8 per cent. in the last decade. Granulated sugar, produced by one of the oldest trusts, was in 1908 only 4½ per cent. above its average price during the base years 1890-1899. Coffee, prunes, and sugar (a combination sadly recalling college boarding-house menus) were the three glorious exceptions in a list of thirty principal food articles whose retail prices were studied by the United States Labor Department experts in 1908. As compared with their average retail prices during the years 1890-1899 these three articles were each lower in price in 1907. The other twenty-seven articles, over half of them free from trust control, had risen for the same time by amounts ranging from 4.5 per cent. to 57.3 per cent., and averaging over 21 per cent.

Refined petroleum was 51.7 per cent. higher in 1908 than during the base years. This means that refined petroleum had advanced in price more than twice as rapidly as general commodities. It must be noted, in fair and perhaps full offset, that crude petroleum had risen in the same time 95.6 per cent.

The Beef Trust is the special target for many an opprobrious shaft. Yet the higher cost of hogs and cattle rather evenly balances the higher prices of products. As compared with the base years, cattle of all kinds averaged a rise of 27.4 per cent. in price for 1908, while fresh beef (native sides) sold 21.1 per cent. higher, and bacon averaged 33 per cent. higher, and smoked hams only 14.3 per cent.

higher, in 1908, than during the base years.

The Steel Trust has held the price of its steel rails steady at $28 per ton since its formation in 1901.

When the rising cost of raw materials and the average rise of wages per hour (reported as 28.8 per cent. by the Labor Department) are considered, it must be admitted that the trusts, as represented by four of the greatest and the most-abused of them all, do not appear to have forced their prices to arbitrary heights. Certainly there is no indication at all that the trusts are responsible for the general price rise.

This conclusion, sustained by the price records, is by no means a justification of the trust level of prices. It affirms simply that trusts have not played an important rôle in the drama of the rising cost of living.

The essential trust problem, from the standpoint of the consumer, is that of inducing, or compelling, the trusts to share with the public, in the form of lowered prices, the gains arising from industrial combination. To affirm that there has been thus far little or no such sharing is to affirm that the trusts have retained for themselves their considerable cost savings. It is not to affirm that they have added to their combination, cost-saving, gains, further gain from arbitrarily advancing prices more rapidly than the general rise everywhere in evidence in the price world.

It should be observed, in concluding our consideration of trusts, that local monopolies, such as the Ice Trust and the recent Milk Trust of New York City, have sometimes levied murderous toll upon the city's poor. Such combinations are, however, strictly local, and play only a minute part in the general rise of prices.

Of all the causes alleged to explain the general rise in prices which have been considered here as factors tending to lessen supply, but one,—namely, the disappearance of native, unusually rich opportunity,—appears upon analysis to be playing any real and important part in causing the general rise in living cost. It is notable that this one real cause is impersonal and inevitable.

INCREASED DEMAND

In the second class of alleged causes for rise in prices,—namely, those which tend to increase demand for life necessities,—are (1) speculation, (2) extravagant living, (3) rising standard of living, (4) growth of population. These may now be considered briefly.

First: The speculation referred to is always that of the sensational, corner-producing type. Such speculation plays no part worth considering in a general rise of prices. The artificial demand created by a corner is a temporary thing. The Hutchinson corner in wheat in September, 1888, drove the price to $2 per bushel, but it fell on the following day to $1.04½. The Leiter corner in May, 1898, forced the price up to $1.85, yet the average price of wheat for that year was 88½ cents.

Second: Extravagant living may multiply needless expenditure, and may seek to win recognition through silly, if not criminal, waste. The rapid building of American great fortunes unfortunately hothouses many such spenders. Relatively, however, they are few. It may well be doubted that their wasteful demands produce any appreciable effect upon the general cost of living.

Third: The sane rise of the standard of living has probably been a minor factor in causing the rise of prices. This steady education of taste is a most desirable thing in a republic. It leads the great mass of the people to desire, and to strive to obtain, better meats, fresher eggs, purer butter, finer garments, more sanitary, more commodious, and more beautiful homes. Such things cost more. More demand for these better things is a factor in advancing prices. The advent of the automobile illustrates this well. Tens of thousands of homes have added this luxury. Decided factors in the advance both of leather and of rubber prices are the automobile manufacturers' needs for tops, body trimmings, and tires.

Fourth: The growth of population is frequently cited as a cause for the increasing cost of living. In a country whose opportunities are as young as those of the United States additions to the population are likely to produce a surplus above their consumption. That surplus by increasing the supply tends to decrease the price of goods.

Notably is this the case with the great immigrant increases of the population of the United States. Roughly, 85 per cent. of these immigrants are of the productive ages between 15 and 45 years, and about 70 per cent. are males. When it is noted that the native population is about evenly divided between the sexes, and that only about 60 per cent. are between the ages of 15 and 45 years, it becomes obvious that immigrant additions to the American population decrease, rather than increase, the cost of living.

Although increase of population properly

registers as a factor in decreasing living cost from a national point of view, it is none the less clear that increasing population congesting at one particular place is the distinct cause of the rise of rents. The urban flow of population the world round is a cause of increased city rentals, and therefore a clear, contributory cause to the rising cost of living of city dwellers.

INCREASE IN THE WORLD'S GOLD SUPPLY

Of all the guessed causes there remains for consideration only the increased gold supply of the world. This stands apart. Gold is the world's money medium. On it the world bases its credits.*

Although gold stands thus apart, the denominator of the values of all other things, gold itself is subject to the common law of value applying to all kinds of wealth. If gold be greatly increased, unless the demand for it increases just as rapidly, it will become less valuable just as strawberries grow less valuable as the red boxes pour in with the advancing season.

There is this marked difference, however, between the cheapening of gold and the cheapening of any other thing. When gold cheapens, the money medium of the world cheapens. This means that it will take more of it to buy given amounts of other things. But this is only another way of saying that the prices of other things rise. An increase then in the amount of gold, outrunning the increasing demand for it, causes a general rise in prices.

The world is now experiencing a general rise in prices. They are rising in free-trade Britain and in protectionist Germany. They are rising in sparsely settled Maine districts, which have been steadily losing population since the Civil War, and they are rising in congested New York. They are rising in the products of the uncombined farmers more rapidly in most cases than in the products of the great industrial trusts. They are rising in the case of boots and shoes almost as rapidly as in the case of new buildings, though the boot and shoemaker's union is ineffective as to wage determination, while the building trades have pinnacle union power. The rise is general as to goods and universal as to geography.

Accidental, local, partial causes do not satisfactorily explain such a case. There must be some general cause for so general an event. That general cause is the increase of the world's money medium.

Other causes explain differentials. They make clear why the advance in the prices of a few goods has gone far ahead of the average advance. Reverse causes serve to explain why the prices of a few other goods have lagged far behind the average price advance. The increasing gold supply alone explains satisfactorily the general and the universal advance in prices.

There is historic confirmation for this conclusion. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries silver was the commercial world's money medium. Spanish galleons winged to Europe a close procession of rich cargoes from the Silver Mountains of Mexico and of Peru. Prices consequently rose, almost continuously, for nearly two centuries. All the continent stirred with new life. English, Dutch, and French traders and artisans labored to win a share of the Spanish treasure. Of it all was born modern Europe.

Both analysis of our own day and testimony of history indorse the gold increase as the fundamental cause for rising prices.

This suggests two conclusions: (1) The rise in prices is inevitable until gold-producing conditions change. The nation and the world might as well meet their inevitable cheerfully. At least they can save their tempers and their time by not squandering condemnation on those responsible for trusts, trade unions, tariffs, and other mistakenly alleged causes for rising prices.

(2) The general price rise has its distinctly cheerful side. In the United States this has been the farmers' decade. Instead of toiling endlessly to meet mortgage interest, the farmer has framed his mortgage as a memento of past hardships. He crowds the bank vaults of the villages and he pays cash for his automobiles. Farmers comprise nearly one-half the nation. Prosperity for the farmers then is cheering.

Further, general business thrives. An era of rising prices always encourages ventures and fosters development. Such an era stimulates rapid accumulation of fluid capital. This is well illustrated by the giant total of $14,035,523,165, individual deposits in banks of the United States, as reported in the just issued report of the Comptroller of the Currency for 1909. Swift prosperity reaction from our late panic has come largely because the fundamental tendency is toward rising prices. The silver lining of the cloud of rising prices is worthy of much consideration.

* See the article by Prof. Irving Fisher on page 190.

GOLD IN RELATION TO THE COST OF LIVING

BY IRVING FISHER

(Professor of Political Economy at Yale University)

A PRICE is a ratio of exchange between two articles, one of which, under all ordinary circumstances, is money. It is a curious fact that, just because money enters into practically every exchange, its presence is usually overlooked. Most persons are as unconscious of the influence of the monetary standard on their lives as of the pressure of the atmosphere on their bodies. When the price of wheat is mentioned to the average man there arises in his mind a picture of the causes affecting wheat, but no picture of the causes affecting money. Yet the price of wheat in terms of money is just as truly a price of money in terms of wheat.

It follows that a complete study of any rise in price consists of two parts: first, a study of conditions peculiar to the particular commodity or commodities in question; secondly, a study of conditions applying to the general purchasing power of money. Since the purchasing power of money is expressed in terms of the general price level, we may say that a rise in price of any particular commodity may be divided into two parts,—namely, a rise in that particular price above the general price level and a rise in that general price level itself.

The present increase in the cost of living must accordingly be due either to particular causes relative to food, clothing, and other family supplies, or to general causes affecting the whole level of prices. Statistics show that general prices have risen about 50 per cent. in ten years and that the cost of living has risen about as much. We may, therefore, infer that the rise in the cost of living is due little to particular but mostly to general causes. The purpose of this article is to discuss general causes.

As a matter of fact an explanation of general prices is in some respects simpler than an explanation of a particular price. While myriads of causes lie behind a general rise of prices, these causes can only operate in three proximate forms, (1) through a change in the quantity of money and its substitutes (particularly deposit currency transferable by check), (2) through a change in the velocity of circulation of money and its substitutes, and (3) through a change in the volume of business transacted. It is easy to show, in fact, that the general price level varies directly as the first two magnitudes (currency and velocity) and inversely as the third (business).

Taking up the third first it is clear that during the last ten years there has been no shrinkage in the volume of business even when the inflation of values has been entirely eliminated. Shipping tonnage, railway ton miles, and other statistics taken together demonstrate that business has expanded, not contracted. Consequently so far as this cause is concerned, it has operated to depress prices and could not therefore be invoked to explain a general rise.

As to the velocity of circulation of money and of deposit currency we have unfortunately little statistical evidence. Last September in the *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society* I published what appears to be the first calculation of the velocity of circulation of money. The conclusion was that the money in circulation in the United States in 1896 turned over between eighteen and nineteen times a year. Similar calculations following out the same method, but applied to statistics of 1909, have recently been made by Prof. David Kinley, of the University of Illinois, showing precisely the same result. This agreement between velocity in 1896 and 1909 would seem to indicate that the velocity of circulation of money does not fluctuate greatly. Some French and a few American statistics for the velocity of circulation of deposit currency against which checks are drawn, afford no evidence that the velocity of circulation of bank deposits has materially changed.

THE GOLD INFLATION

There remains, therefore, only one possible explanation for the general rise in prices,—namely, an expansion of the volume of circulating money and deposits. It may be

shown that the volume of deposits depends upon the volume of money. There must be always a money basis for credit, and the larger the basis the larger the credit structure possible. While it is true that the credit structure may temporarily expand beyond its normal ratio to the money basis on which it rests, yet even this abnormal expansion of deposits is always inaugurated by an expansion of money. It is probable that deposits in general are now expanding more rapidly than their monetary basis. But the source of this deposit inflation is money inflation, and the source of the monetary inflation is gold inflation. We must give up our blind faith in the stability of gold. While experience has given us all a keen sense of the dangers of paper inflation, this very fact has led to overconfidence in gold. We stoutly cling to the delusion that nothing else is "as solid as gold," while under our very eyes the cyanide method of extracting gold from low-grade ores as well as the new discoveries of gold and their continued exploitation produce a depreciation we are unwilling to recognize. The statistics for the last few years have shown a remarkable increase in the output of gold and one which resembles the increase after the gold discoveries in the forties. Prices rise now as they rose then and for the same reasons.

THE "QUANTITY THEORY" OF MONEY

The relation which has been stated, namely, that prices vary directly with the quantity of the circulating medium and its velocity of circulation, and inversely as the amount of business transacted is one which may fairly be said to be well established *except* in the minds of those who have never given the proposition careful and unbiased examination. The proposition depends on the very simple and every-day fact of experience that the quantity of money expended in purchases is equal to the quantities of goods bought multiplied by their prices. It is true that many persons, including some professed economists, have endeavored to disprove what they have called the "quantity theory of money." And in truth this theory, as it is often stated, is easily disproved, for it takes no account of the velocity of circulation or of the volume of business. When these two factors are properly considered, the facts and statistics available, so far from disproving the relation connecting price level with the three factors, currency, velocity, and business, place that relation on a very substantial statistical basis. This has been most completely shown by Professor Kemmerer, of Cornell University, and will also form the subject matter of a book which I hope soon to publish. Aside from statistical verification, the principle in question had been thoroughly reasoned out by the late Professor Simon Newcomb as well as by President Hadley and other careful reasoners. The attempt to discredit the quantity theory seems to have been largely inspired by a foolish fear that this theory strengthened the claim of unsound money schemes. The fact that advocates of free silver so often invoked the quantity theory, beguiled many champions of sound money into opposing not only free silver, but every argument, good or bad, by which free silver was advocated.

EFFECT OF SHORT CROPS AND INVENTIONS

But surely, it will be maintained, we must leave room for more than three influences on price level! Have not short crops, inventions, labor unions, trusts, and numerous other conditions some effect, not only on particular prices, but on the general level of prices? To this question an affirmative answer may be made without surrendering the proposition, that the only influences affecting the price level are three: Currency, its velocity and business volume, for all other causes produce their effects through these three. Short crops will decrease and inventions increase the volume of business. Inventions affording more rapid transportation and communication tend to increase the velocity of circulation of money and checks. Inventions in metallurgy tend to increase the quantity of gold and consequently of all currency based on gold. The development of banking devices tends to increase the volume of credit substitutes for money. The substitution of corporations for partnerships, by increasing the volume of stocks and bonds which can be used as collateral securities for loans, likewise tends to increase bank deposits based on these loans; and bank deposits are the chief substitute for money.

COST OF LIVING INCREASES TWICE AS FAST AS WAGES

Similarly labor unions and trusts, if they actually restrain trade in the aggregate, will tend to increase the price level. This effect, however, is of quite a different kind from a direct raising of particular prices. From no point of view can the conclusion be justified that the main cause of the present rise in cost

of living is due to labor unions. This rise in cost is world-wide, being felt in Europe and even in India, where American labor unions and labor leaders cannot, by the utmost stretch of imagination, be supposed to dominate the situation. Moreover, so far as American statistics show, such as those of Bradstreet and the Department of Commerce and Labor, wages have risen only about half as fast as the cost of living. If it were true that the increasing demands of labor unions, by increasing the cost of producing commodities, had resulted in a general increase of prices, these would surely have risen more slowly than wages. The facts, however, show that the cost of living has increased about twice as fast as wages, and this seems to be approximately the rule during any period of rising prices. In other words, during rising prices the laborer is the loser. In fact, his strikes and insistent demands for higher wages represent a belated attempt to overtake the advancing cost of living. Labor disputes and demands are thus an almost invariable accompaniment of rising prices, but they are effects of rising prices, not causes.

THE PART PLAYED BY THE TRUSTS

Similar reasoning would seem to disprove that the general rise of prices is due, in any large measure, to trusts. Whatever effect they have had "in restraint of trade" has not been sufficient to decrease the general volume of trade. Every indication shows that this volume has increased. No one has ever claimed that trusts have increased the velocity of circulation of currency nor its volume,—except, as it has substituted more negotiable stocks and bonds and other securities for those which preceded and thereby increased bank deposits. The general rise of prices applicable alike to cost of living and other prices is not due in any great measure to trusts nor labor unions nor any other cause, except the growing abundance of gold.

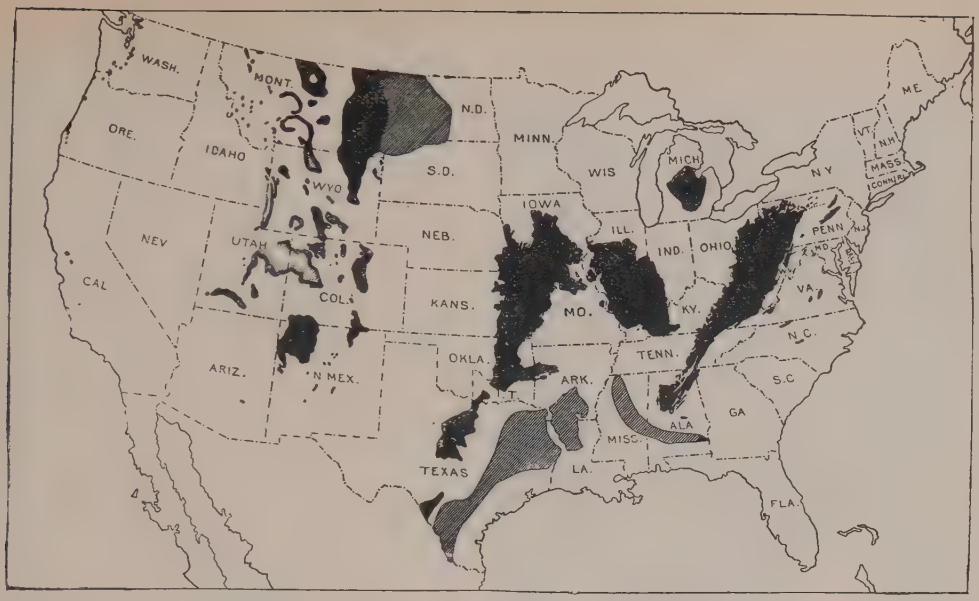
THE INTEREST RATE

There is every prospect that this cause will continue to operate for several decades. It is also probable that labor discontent will continue to express itself and that laborers and capitalists will mutually accuse each other of being responsible for rising prices. This will be unfortunate, for if gold, the real culprit, is not recognized as such, the world of business, lulled into a false sense of security and relying on the vaunted stability of gold, will make the usual mistakes which such a misconception engenders. One of these mistakes will be a failure to adjust the rate of interest. The rate of interest plays, it is believed, a central rôle in all business relations. "A business man discounts everything" is a phrase which means that interest enters into every business calculation. If the rate of interest is based on a mistake, disaster is likely to follow. When prices are rising, money is depreciating. The principal of every debt is shrinking in real value and can be *offset only by a compensating rise in the rate of interest.*

If prices are rising 10 per cent. per annum, the rate of interest must be 15 per cent. in order that there may be a real net rate of 5 per cent. The matter is not one which concerns merely debtors and creditors. It concerns the public. The rate of interest acts as a brake on business investment. If the rate is normal, investment is normal. If the rate is abnormally low, investment is abnormally great. Foolish enterprises are financed and a few years of apparent prosperity culminate in a commercial crisis. This is the rock towards which we are now heading, and on which we must surely strike in a few years, unless the rate of interest is adjusted to the rise of prices. Of course this is no plea for excessive rates of interest, which on their side are equally injurious; but we must distinguish between rates of interest which are *nominally* high and those which are *actually* high. If prices rise 10 per cent. per annum a rate of interest of 11 per cent. should be regarded as low, being equivalent to only 1 per cent. when prices are stationary.

GOLD AN UNSTABLE STANDARD

Yet, after all has been said and done toward adjusting interest, wages, and other conditions to advancing prices, we cannot expect any satisfactory or permanent cure unless it will prevent the rise of prices itself. In other words, what is needed is a stable monetary standard. Gold is not such a standard. It would be useless here to attempt the solution of this gigantic problem, but the first step towards solving any public problem is to secure public recognition of its existence. As soon as we realize that the gold platform on which we all stand is not solid, but sinking, we shall begin to contrive methods of securing stability.



POTENTIAL COAL RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES

(The black areas are anthracite and bituminous; the shaded areas are lignite)

OUR COAL SUPPLY TO-DAY

New Facts About the American Product

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL

FOR many thousand years the human race increased and spread over the earth, gaining its sustenance from the products of the surface soil and invading the depths only in search of the precious metals. Coal was an early mineral discovery, yet its first use was in but a few restricted fields of industry, and for many centuries it constituted no important factor in the world's economy.

At the birth of the American Republic the vast coal measures of the country were still undisturbed. The early plantation and urban life of the original States boasted many luxuries and much real elegance, borrowed from the sumptuous courts of Europe, but the present-day necessity, coal, contributed in no measure thereto. Coal is a thing but of yesterday, yet with all of our economic problems of to-day it is vitally associated. The knowledge, therefore, that America possesses an immense supply of this metamorphosed vegetable matter is a cause for keen national satisfaction, while a study of the nature and extent of the deposits is a subject of interest alike to the householder, the captain of industry, and the economist.

A fascinating study, then, is that of the geologic coal map of the United States, the most impressive map of its kind in the world. It bespeaks for the people of America vast reserves of latent power, heat, and light and portends untold measures of human industry, comfort, and prosperity. It shows enormous tracts of land underlain with this stored-up force, to a depth of a mile, all the way from northern Pennsylvania to Oregon and from the Canada-North Dakota boundary to southernmost Texas. In quality the coal ranges from the highest-grade anthracite and bituminous down to brown lignite, which is but a geologic step removed from peat.

The aggregate of these great known coal beds is a full half-billion squares miles, or 320,000,000 acres. The deposits are, of course, variable in thickness, but some of them are immensely thick,—forty, fifty, sixty, and even eighty feet of solid coal. Some of the areas carry several thick seams, one above the other, and separated by layers or strata of clay or rock. One acre of coal one foot thick weighs about 1800 tons. A single square mile of a forty-foot bed con-

MAP OF ALASKA, SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF COAL AND COAL-BEARING ROCKS, SO FAR AS KNOWN

tains 46,000,000 tons of coal. It will thus be seen that the United States possesses some coal. The calculations of the Government coal geologists indicate as much,—namely, that there is of easily workable coal in the United States proper, 2,000,000,000,000 tons, and of coal deposits accessible with difficulty over 1,000,000,000,000 tons additional, —or a total of over three thousand billion tons. The accessible deposits would constitute a wall a mile high and a mile thick stretching all the way from New York to Chicago. Can we ever exhaust such a supply and be compelled to draw upon the remaining thousand million tons of less accessible deposits?

The coal measures of Alaska, when they are surveyed in detail, will add no inconsiderable tonnage to the total for the United States. The Geological Survey has already examined more or less exhaustively some 8,000,000 acres of coal bearing lands, while 150,000 square miles of Alaska are yet geologically unexplored, and doubtless contain additional coal-fields. The quality of the Alaskan coals ranges all the way from lignite to high-grade anthracite and coking-bituminous. What the total tonnage of these great fields will be it is impossible to even guess; 6,000,000,000 tons of high-grade coal is an admittedly conservative estimate made from a survey of one field containing a little over half a million acres. The total coal tonnage of Alaska will possibly be figured in hundreds of billions of tons, certainly in scores of billions. The Territory's coal reserves moreover occupy strategic positions. Railroads are under construction which will tap two of the largest fields and water transportation touches others. This, in connection with the scarcity of high-grade coal deposits in the States west of the Rocky Mountains, gives Alaskan coals a preeminent position; they become the key to the commercial situation of the Pacific Coast. Of all our Pacific possessions Alaska alone can supply our battleships with smokeless coal.

Anthracite, or hard coal, is the highest type of the coals, as it is also the most valuable for heating purposes. Bituminous, or soft coal, is a less perfected piece of carbon, but the kind that will make good coke is of greater economic value than anthracite. In tonnage the soft-coal supplies of the country far exceed the anthracite. The first coal was formed during the Carboniferous Age, a geologic period of great length, during which time there throve and died in the swamps which then covered the Eastern United States, through many scores of centuries, a series of the most luxuriant of tropical vegetations. During this period all of the country but the Atlantic Coast and the Great Lakes regions was ocean. Where is now the Appalachian system of mountains the first coal was thus laid down, the Rocky Mountains not appearing for several million years thereafter.

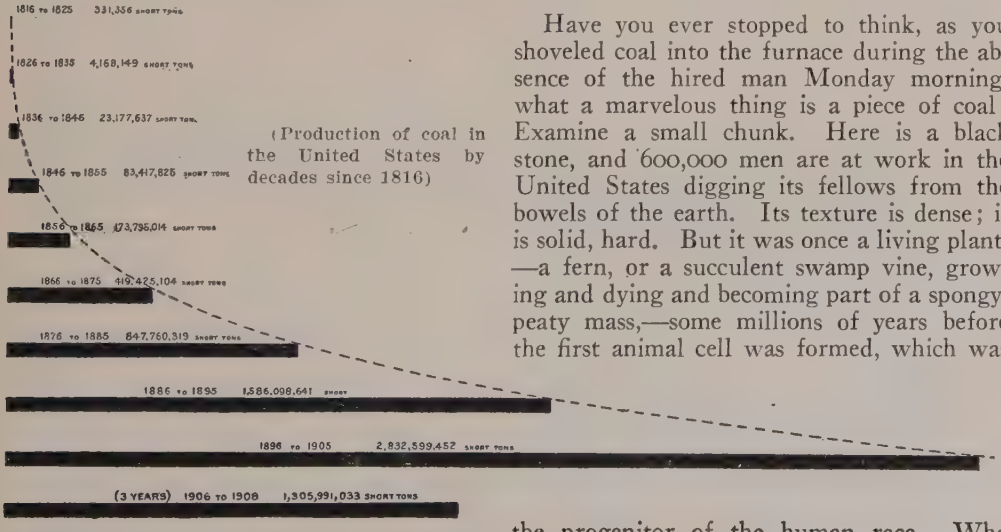
ALLEGHANIES ONCE RIVALED THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS IN HEIGHT

Great pressure and the exclusion of air are the principal agencies which operate to make good coal, and some idea may be gained

of the treatment accorded the carboniferous deposits when it is understood that the Alleghanies, the Blue Ridge, and the White Mountains were once in all probability as rugged and lofty as are the Rocky Mountains to-day. They have been worn down through countless ages of erosion and disintegration. If these eastern mountains were at one time even 10,000 feet high it can be seen how old they must be to have been reduced to 3000 feet at the average rate of wearing of about twelve inches in a thousand years, which geologists say is a liberal estimate.

All the mountainous formations are composed of strata, and the great uplift of the volcanic or igneous rocks, followed by the cooling and shrinking processes, has left these strata in innumerable folds and flexures. Throughout the Appalachian system the truncations of the strata are common, and to the geologist a little mathematical work, mixed with the exercise of the scientific imagination, restores the broken ends and carries the strata upward to their approximate original positions, two, three, or four times as high above sea-level as are the mountains to-day. The highest mountains of the eastern United States are thus but old stubs of former lofty peaks and ranges. A glance, too, at the maps in any manual of geology will show why there are no carboniferous deposits in the western portion of the United States, for during that early age of the world there were no land areas in that region. The Cretaceous Age, long following the Carboniferous, is the one mainly responsible for the coal beds of the West.

GOVERNMENT GEOLOGIST PROSPECTING A THIRTEEN-FOOT ANTHRACITE BED ON PUBLIC LAND
(Coal Creek Canyon, Mount Gunnison, Colorado)



(Production of coal in the United States by decades since 1816)

Have you ever stopped to think, as you shoveled coal into the furnace during the absence of the hired man Monday morning, what a marvelous thing is a piece of coal? Examine a small chunk. Here is a black stone, and 600,000 men are at work in the United States digging its fellows from the bowels of the earth. Its texture is dense; it is solid, hard. But it was once a living plant,—a fern, or a succulent swamp vine, growing and dying and becoming part of a spongy, peaty mass,—some millions of years before the first animal cell was formed, which was the progenitor of the human race. Who would dream of its remarkable utility? Who would imagine that it would readily ignite and produce an intense heat, and that a pound

of it applied to machinery would generate one horse-power for about half an hour? Yet this is coal, and to-day coal moves the world.

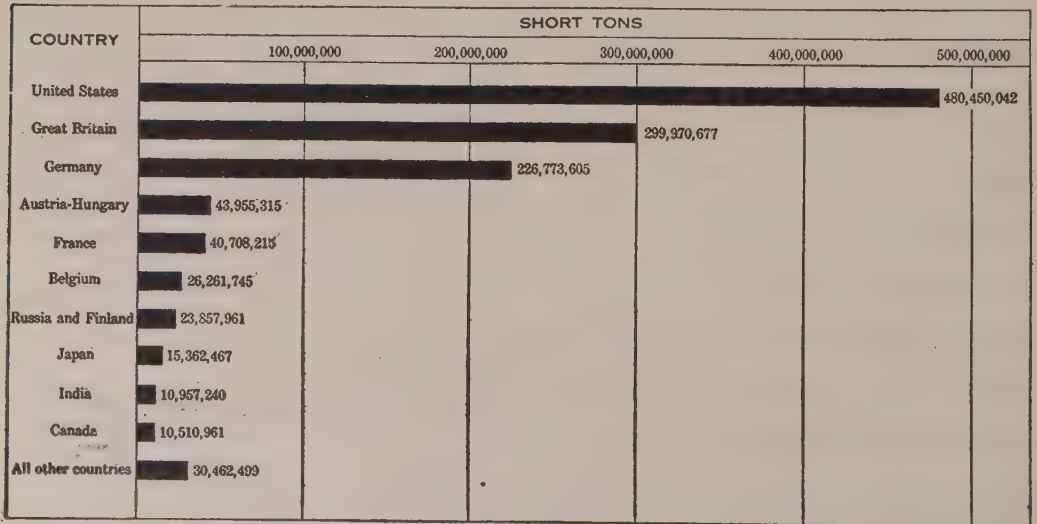
GREAT INCREASE IN COAL MINING

In spite of the enormous coal supplies of the United States, by far the greatest in the world, the strong demands of industry have made an appreciable beginning toward exhaustion of the deposits, and some of the more easily mined beds have already become practically worked out. Should the present tremendous rate of increase in coal consumption continue indefinitely there would be cause for the greatest alarm. In fact, in a short time we would be out of coal. It seems impossible that this rate of increase should continue at all, yet the same thing was said twenty and even thirty years ago, and has been disproved by the results of each succeeding decade. At the 1908 rate of consumption our 2,000,000,000,000-ton coal supply would last over 3000 years, while at the present rate of increase in consumption it would last only about 130 years. Of course, neither of these estimates will hold in practice; certainly not the latter. An increased consumption of coal is, however, assured for many years to come, but it is not probable that the tremendous rate of increase which has prevailed during the past fifty years will long endure.

Just when coal exhaustion will become a fact depends upon too many factors to warrant even a guess. In the future powerful extraneous influences will come to bear upon coal production, most if not all of which are in favor of lengthening the life of the supply. They range all the way from a more scientific construction and stoking of the individual house furnace to the utilization of sun heat. The very diminution of the coal supply would raise the price and retard production, which, however, would make of coal a luxury and interfere with the march of industry. The utilization of the 36,000,000 or more horse-power now going to waste in the rivers of the United States would save a vast amount of coal, and there are many other factors bearing upon the subject which it is of interest to discuss at this time. Generally speaking, it is enough to say that the time has arrived when we can see that our coal supply is not inexhaustible, and that it is worth while to do away, as far as possible, with waste and extravagance.

While the range in quality from anthracite to lignite coal is great the methods of mining all kinds of coal are similar. Such methods, of course, vary greatly in different parts of the country, according to whether the coal is flat bedded or steeply inclined, and depending on the depths of the beds. But these variations occur in all kinds of coal.

The handling of coal after mining presents some variation; hard coal is usually broken, screened, and assorted down to culm or dust. Soft coal may be sold as "run-of-mine," but if it has a large percentage of waste dust, as in the Oklahoma coals, which run from 30 to 40 per cent. dust, consumers require screening, and only the lump is at



AMERICA'S SUPREMACY IN COAL PRODUCTION

PICKING OVER THE COAL WASTE — ANTHRACITE DUMP PILES AT SCRANTON, PA.

(Fires have been smoldering in these great waste heaps for many years)

present utilized. Lignite mining is crude and but little developed, owing principally to the fact that the product air-slacks upon exposure and to the competition of various higher-grade coals.

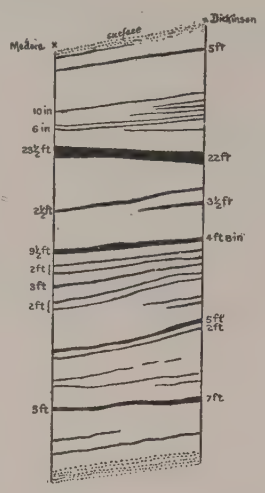
WHERE THE COAL GOES

Who uses most of the coal? First and foremost of any single industry, the railroads consume from 90,000,000 to 100,000,000 tons a year, and these and steamships probably use nearly 30 per cent. of the country's output, which is as much or more than is used for all domestic and heating purposes. This leaves approximately one-half of the total production,—principally bituminous,—to be accounted for by the industries of the country.

Coal and manufacturing are terms which are in general practice closely related, but they are constantly changing their adjustments, which affect and are in turn affected by transportation. For instance, New York is the greatest manufacturing State, yet she possesses no coal mines. On the other hand, West Virginia is the third largest coal producer, but she has comparatively no manufactures. The time will doubtless come when West Virginia, with her vast coal resources, will stop shipping away all of her fuel, largely to New York and New England, and become a great manufacturing State. It is only necessary to consult the statistics of manufacturing of any region to arrive at a close approximation of its relative coal consumption. Some figures prepared

A LIGNITE SEAM IN NORTH DAKOTA

from the 1905 anthracite coal output,—practically all from Pennsylvania mines,—will convey an idea of where the country's hard coal renders its final accounting. In that year New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania consumed in round numbers 41,000,000 tons; New England, 8,000,000 tons; States west of the Ohio River, 7,000,000 tons; Southern States, 2,000,000 tons, and Canada, 2,000,000 tons. Only 40,000 tons were exported.



AN AGGREGATE OF FIFTY FEET OF LIGNITE STRATA LYING BETWEEN DICKINSON AND MEDORA, NORTH DAKOTA,—FORTY MILES

EARLY COAL DISCOVERIES

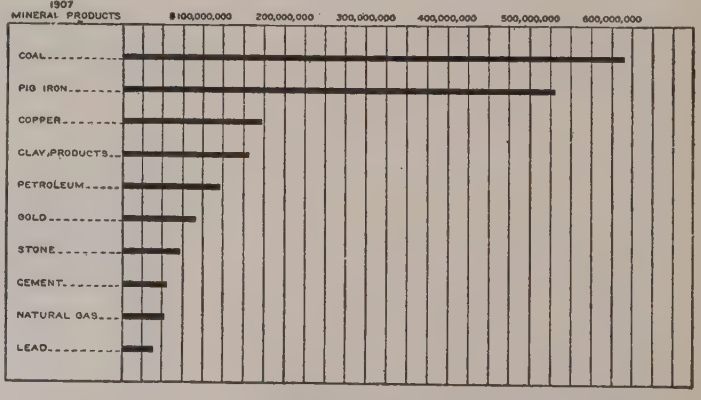
Coal was probably first discovered in the United States by Father Hennepin in 1679 in Illinois, but in the early days of the country it was little used. As late as 1850 our coal production was only 6,400,000 tons. Compare this with the production of the record year 1907 of 480,000,000 tons, an increase in a little over half a century from slightly more than one-fourth of a ton per capita to five and one-half tons, despite an enormous increase in population. Picture this great volume of coal in another way. With an average of thirty cars of coal to the train and of fifty tons to a car the number of trains required to transport the 1907 output was 320,300, and the combined length of these trains would extend two and two-third times around the world. Or this coal would build a cube half a mile on all sides. With it a rectangular tower with a thousand-foot base would extend about three and a half miles into the air.

These 1907 figures of production are cited as showing more fairly the increase in the use of coal, since there was an abnormal falling-off in the rate of increase in 1908, owing to the business panic of that year. However, while the coal production of 1908 was 415,000,000 short tons, or 65,000,000 less than the 1907 figures, it was yet greater than that of any of the other years in the history of the country. The generally steady and rapid rate of increase in production is strikingly shown by the fact that the production of each decade or ten-year period for the past hundred years has been greater than the total production for all the preceding years.

PERPETUATION OF THE COAL SUPPLY

Until recently there has been little thought of economy in coal production or utilization. For every ton mined another ton or more has been wasted either in the shape of coal dust or slack, or coal left in the ground. Mining methods have, however, improved, and the loss now amounts to 40 per cent., as against 60 per cent. a short time ago. In many mines as high as 75 per cent. of the coal is recovered. Likewise much higher efficiency is being secured in the utilization of the coal. A single example will serve to show the possibilities in this line.

In extensive experiments made by the Technologic branch of the United States Geological Survey it has been found that by first converting the coal into gas and then using it in a gas engine double and in some instances over three times the efficiency can be secured that is achieved under the ordinary steam boiler. For industrial purposes, therefore, we at one step practically double, if not treble, the coal area of the country. More-



VALUE OF THE COAL PRODUCT IN THE UNITED STATES AS COMPARED WITH OTHER MINERAL PRODUCTS

over, the sensational discovery was made by the Survey tests that the low-grade lignite of the Northwest and Texas, underlying an area of some 100,000,000 acres, when used in gas engines, developed more power than the best Pocahontas coal under ordinary steaming methods. From the Pocahontas coal the Geological Survey steam plant produced .28 horse-power per pound, while the gas-producer generated .96 horse-power per pound, or 3.34 times the efficiency for the gas-producer plant over the steam plant. These lignitic coals have been looked upon as of little if any commercial value; now the regions where they are found are considered as possible great industrial centers.

ADVANCE IN COKE-MAKING METHODS

Another recent development is the feasibility of making coke out of supposedly non-coking coals. Coal which will make good coke is recognized as of the greatest industrial value, since coke is used in metallurgical work, such as the manufacture of structural steel, steel rails, and the like. For the reduction of metals coke, during the past fifty years, has almost completely supplanted both charcoal and anthracite coal, and its production has increased from 3,000,000 tons in 1880 to 50,000,000 tons in 1907. Pennsylvania and West Virginia have furnished most of this coke, and it was supposed that the coking coals were largely limited to these fields, but as a result of preliminary treatment the Geological Survey has made coke from presumably non-coking Colorado coal, and this in the very section where the Colorado reduction plants had been importing their coke from Pennsylvania. Word now comes that it may be possible to coke nearly all the coals of Illinois, a State which produces more coal than any but two foreign countries.

Incidental to the coking of fifty million tons of coal annually in the United States by the use of the by-products coke oven instead of the old-fashioned beehive oven, there is a possibility of saving millions of dollars in by-products which are now dissipated in the form of gas and smoke. Germany has discarded the beehive oven as crude and wasteful. The United States has yet in operation 90,000 beehive ovens and less than 4000 by-products ovens. In 1907 the coke produced from these improved ovens was valued at $21,000,000 and the by-products at $7,500,000. The beehive ovens produced coke worth $89,000,000, and absolutely wasted by-products to the great value of $55,000,000, consisting of ammonia, needed for fertilizer; gas, of use for lighting and power; creosote, valuable for wood preservation; and tar, useful in binding coal dust into briquets. This is simply a sign of the prevailing national waste due to abundance of resources. However, the Steel Trust and others are adopting the by-products ovens, and the waste in this instance will probably be stopped.

LARGE BRIQUETS PILED ON A FRENCH RAILWAY

(At the right a pile of "eggettes," used in France for domestic fuel)

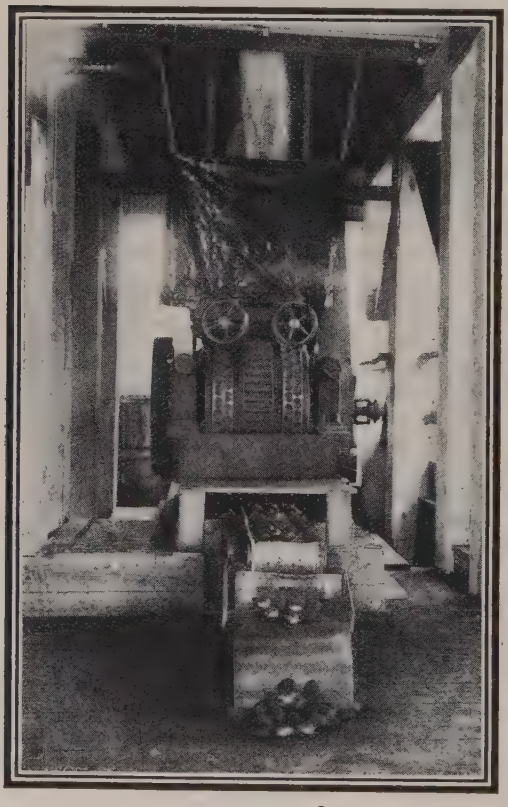
BRIQUETS MAKE EXCELLENT FUEL

The briquetting industry is a feature of our fuel question which is becoming important. Recent Geological Survey tests showed wonderful efficiency with briquets as compared with the best mined coal, and also that under certain conditions they produce less smoke than coal. Germany manufactures 15,000,000 tons of briquets annually, and she and other continental countries use the briquet extensively on railroads and for domestic purposes. In this country the cheapness of raw coal has operated against the use of the briquet, but as its superiority becomes better known it will take its proper place as a fuel.

In sixteen complete test trips on the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad, made under the supervision of the Government engineers, with briquets in comparison with run-of-mine coal, the former proved superior in every respect. The average of briquet fuel

consumed was less and the number of miles run was greater in favor of the briquets. They burned completely, with little smoke and no clinkers. In these tests 172,700 pounds of coal was consumed in running 10,912 car miles, as against 161,980 pounds of briquets in running 12,896 car miles. Stated another way, the running of each car mile consumed 15.8 pounds of coal, as against 12.5 pounds of briquets. With the briquet substituted for coal on all American railroad engines, this would mean a saving of 30,000,000 tons of coal annually.

The cost of laying down the finished briquet is a little over $1 a ton, and a dozen or more factories are now in successful operation in the United States. Ordinary briquets require from 4 to 7 per cent. of pitch or some other "binder," which is the principal item in cost; but the Geological Survey has recently installed a huge machine for producing briquets of lignite coal by simple pressure without the use of a binder. This machine is capable of exerting a pressure of 28,000 pounds to the square inch and has demonstrated that successful briquetting can be accomplished without the use of a binder.



BRIQUET MACHINE

(Capacity, ten tons an hour,—testing plant of the United States Geological Survey)

FUTURE SMOKELESS CITIES

It is a source of real pleasure to know that the black smoke problem has been already solved, and that it remains now simply to apply the knowledge and get rid of the smoke. Geological Survey investigations indicate that the clean, comfortable American city, with a normal amount of sunshine, is not far off. Smokeless cities only await a quickened public conscience to the fact that smoke, meaning uncleanliness, wretchedness, disease, and increased cost of living, is preventable. Smoke in the cities is stated by the chief engineer of the Technologic branch of the Survey to cost the vast sum of $225,000,000 annually in the damage which it does to merchandise in stores and warehouses, in the injury to buildings, in the increased cost of labor and housekeeping, and in other items. The smoke inspector of Chicago states that his city suffers a loss each year of $50,000,000 from smoke. When the further statement is made that the Government investigations show that in 50 per cent. of the industrial plants of the country more than 10 per cent. of the coal bills can be saved by the smokeless burning of coal, there are shown to be two factors which should work toward smoke elimination.

New York, Chicago, Pittsburg, may eventually erect white marble buildings which will stay white. Smokeless factory chimneys are not only theoretically possible but they are practicable, and moreover they are far more economical than the present smoke-belching crudities. Black smoke is simply unconsumed carbon,—wasted heat units; perfect combustion and the utilization of all the heat in the coal means smokeless chimneys. The change will not come all in a day or in a year. It is not possible to secure perfect combustion in most of the furnaces of the present, but as new furnaces are installed in old plants and new factories and plants constructed, under strict city ordinances, black smoke will become a thing of memory. The war vessel, too, it is stated, will become as smokeless as is the firing line ashore to-day by reason of the use of smokeless gunpowder.

These and other promising technologic investigations concerning fuel resources are engaging the attention of the Survey; and

numerous important results have already been attained and the conclusions published in various Survey bulletins, which can be had upon application.

A MANUFACTURING PLANT IN FULL BLAST; BEFORE AND AFTER EQUIPMENT WITH MODERN SMOKE-PREVENTION GRATES

MONOPOLIZATION OF THE COAL SUPPLY

A popular cry for some time has been for the abolition or at least the rigid control of the so-called "hard-coal trust." While this trust is believed by most people to fix the price of retail coal, it may at least be said of it that its methods of operation have resulted in economical production,—a truly wonderful showing in economy. Organized business methods and monopoly possibly, with the suppression of cutthroat competition, have resulted in reducing the waste in mining from one and one-half tons of coal for every ton mined to less than one-half a ton of waste for every ton mined. Whether the price of coal as fixed by the trust is too high to suit those who operate house-heating plants, or whether we think the margin of profit to the operator and the dealer too high, the stopping of this profligate waste of a precious fuel certainly tends to keep the price at a lower level than it would otherwise have been.

Bituminous coal, however, is coming more and more into use for heating purposes, since the anthracite deposits are actually showing signs of exhaustion, and the question now presents itself: Is there to arise and confront us a giant soft-coal trust? The same conditions at present very largely apply to bituminous coal production that in former years obtained in anthracite mining; there is wasteful competition, district competing against district, and State against State, with great consequent loss of coal and reckless disregard for the safety of the miner, and it is predicted by those who believe that they have a view into the future that some regulation will before long become necessary for the bituminous fields, as was practically forced into the anthracite situation.

Mr. E. W. Parker, the coal statistician of the Geological Survey, remarks that while under our system of government the federal authorities have no jurisdiction over mines in the several States unless the Constitution could be stretched to cover coal production because of its bearing on interstate traffic, yet it seems to him that before long it will be necessary for the country to make a choice from three evils. The first of these is the continuation of the present conditions,—feasting for to-day and remorse for to-morrow. The second is the ultimate control of the great bituminous coal-fields by a combination of interests that will make the "hard-coal trust," with its little 500 square miles of coal land, appear absolutely puny, and dwarf into comparative insignificance the much exploited "water-power trust." The third is governmental supervision and regulation. The first will be bad; the second worse; the third is problematical. Mr. Parker contends that the present conditions must not be allowed to continue, nor does he believe it the part of wisdom to permit the bituminous coal supply to get into the control of a comparatively few men living in New York and Chicago. He does not consider State control a possible alternative under the competitive conditions referred to. In any light in which it may be viewed the problem is a big one.

ENORMOUS GOVERNMENT COAL TRACTS

A feature of the fuel question which is of great interest to the country and especially to the West is the federal administration of the great coal measures in the public-land States. If the coal lands still belonging to the Government are wisely legislated for by Congress and rigidly administered by the

Executive, the question of coal monopoly will be in a large measure solved. The following table shows in round numbers the estimated tonnage of coal by the Geological Survey in these States:

	Short tons.
Arizona	60,000,000
California	1,000,000,000
Colorado	371,000,000,000
Idaho	600,000,000
Montana	303,000,000,000
New Mexico	163,000,000,000
North Dakota	500,000,000,000
Oregon	1,000,000,000
South Dakota	10,000,000,000
Utah	196,000,000,000
Washington	20,000,000,000
Wyoming	424,000,000,000
Total	1,989,660,000,000

Here is a total tonnage of nearly 2,000,000,000,000, and Uncle Sam's coal map shows an area of over 80,000,000 acres of "workable" or easily accessible coal lands in the West, from which nearly 500,000,000 tons of coal have already been mined. In addition there are many thousands of square miles of coal which is accessible with difficulty, owing to its great depth, but which will be eventually mined as coal becomes scarcer.

It is estimated by the Survey geologists that of the Western coal area of 128,000,000 acres about two-thirds, or 80,000,000 acres, is still in Government ownership. This raised the interesting question several years ago: What has become of the other 40,000,000 acres of coal land originally belonging, of course, to the Government? An examination of the Land Office records showed that less than 400,000 acres of public lands had been disposed of as "coal lands." A large proportion of this difference was admittedly included in railroad and other land grants, but the conclusion was forced that enormous areas, many times the acreage sold as coal land, had been acquired through frauds or ignorance under the homestead, desert, and other land laws.

COAL FRAUDS IN THE WEST

An investigation uncovering evidence of extensive frauds led to the withdrawal by President Roosevelt of over 66,000,000 acres of supposed coal lands pending geologic examination and classification. At the same time the coal-land law was brought down from the shelf, dusted off, and examined by the lawyers of the Interior Department. It was found that it provided that public coal land could be sold for not less than $20 an acre, if within 15 miles of a railroad, and $10 an acre, if outside such limit. These had been the prices previously charged for all coal lands, regardless of values. Secretary Garfield construed the law to the effect that the figures named were clearly minimum prices, and that the lands were subject to classification and valuation. The Geological Survey, whose enabling act charged it with the classification of the public lands, was put to work at once measuring and computing the coal beds, estimating their tonnage, and placing a valuation on each forty-acre tract. As fast as this was done the land was restored to entry and sale. The maximum valuation was placed at $100 an acre, and considerable coal land was thereafter sold at $75, $50, $40, and $30 an acre, as well as some at the minimum price. At the same time coal land frauds were stopped forthwith.

This was a long step forward toward securing an equitable price for public coal land, but Secretary Ballinger has made another logical advance and has inaugurated a scheme of valuation based on tonnage as well as on the grade of coal. Under the present plan the maximum price is $300 an acre.

SOME GREAT COAL VALUES

Further than this, however, Secretary Ballinger has ruled that in developed coal-fields where the extent and character of the deposits are well known there is no limit to the value that may be fixed on the Government coal lands. That is, in cases where such lands lie adjacent to private coal lands now being mined, so that the purchaser knows exactly what he is getting, the price is fixed on the exact tonnage basis and in some cases this exceeds the $300 per acre limit by many hundreds of dollars. The price of the coal lands is thus definitely determined at a coal price, and while high as compared with the give-away minimum price, the amounts seldom exceed a quarter of the royalties paid in the same districts among private interests.

Prices fixed by the Survey vary with the quality of the coal from one-half cent a ton for low-grade bituminous to three cents a ton for anthracite or coking-bituminous coals. The tonnage is always calculated in the interest of the purchaser. For instance, in a ten-foot coal bed the actual tonnage under an acre is 18,000 tons. Private engineers estimate that in such a bed from 12,000 to 14,000 tons would be actually mined; the balance would be necessarily wasted.

The Government, however, values such a bed on the basis of only 10,000 tons, so that actual recovery should in every case exceed the tonnage on which the valuation is based. The best plan would, of course, be for Congress to empower the Government to lease its coal lands and exact a royalty for the coal actually mined. This would bring to the Government an absolutely equitable return, and would at the same time allow for adequate regulation.

A leasing system is advocated by the Secretary of the Interior in his 1909 annual report. Various bills have also been introduced in this Congress separating the surface rights from title to the coal underneath, a step in the right direction.

LARGELY INCREASED VALUATIONS

Many instances could be cited from the figures of the Geological Survey and the General Land Office showing the gain to the Government under the new valuation plan. In one township in Wyoming a comparative approximate statement is as follows:

On basis of minimum price	$460,000
On basis of valuation plan of last year	1,000,000
On basis of 1 cent a ton under present plan	2,800,000

In another instance in a Montana coal tract the following is the showing:

Under minimum price	$112,000
Under valuation plan of last year	141,000
Under present tonnage valuation	370,000

In a single township in the Horsethief Canyon coal-field of Wyoming the present Government valuation of the coal land is $8,134,900, as against $469,655 under the minimum price. One square mile of this township has been classified and valued at $216,600, whereas on an eight-cent royalty basis, which is about the lowest prevailing rate, the returns would be $2,887,000.

The Survey's classification and valuation work during July of last year included 695,456 acres of coal lands and totaled $63,248,379, or an average of $91 an acre, as against $13,525,028 minimum price. The total work of the Survey along these lines from last April, when the new regulations went into effect, to January 1, 1910, foots up a coal valuation of $149,772,443, as against a minimum price of $48,240,970,—a difference of more than $100,000,000.

VALUATIONS STILL CONSERVATIVE

The conservatism of even the present valuation figures for public coal land is emphasized by a comparison of the Government valuations with the leasing rates charged by the States and private owners, as well as by reference to the proceedings in a number of cases where land was fraudulently acquired by coal companies, but later recovered by the Government. In one instance a coal company in Wyoming acquired through fraudulent entries a tract of land at the minimum rate of $20 an acre and carried on mining operations. This company has settled with the Government, out of court, by paying eight cents a ton royalty for all the coal mined, and was anxious for the privilege of being allowed to continue the mining at this rate. This, however, could not be granted under the law. Here the Government received the original $20 an acre besides $31,000 in royalty for the partial working of the coal on the seventy-four acres involved, and has also got back the land. Had the company been permitted to mine out all the workable coal on the eight-cent basis the return to the Government would have been $1320 an acre, or four times the charge for the land under the present valuation plan.

NOTABLE VICTORY FOR THE GOVERNMENT

In another instance a large tract of public coal land was acquired by fraud as grazing land at about one-tenth the minimum coal-land cost. Here again the case was settled out of court, title to the land being returned to the Government, and in addition to paying a fine of $8000 the coal company paid over an indemnity to the Government of $192,000 for the coal mined, the rate per ton being largely in excess of what would be charged on the basis of the present valuation scheme.

The present coal-land policy provides for the saving to the Government and the people of enormous sums of money, and prevents the monopolization by private interests of the Western coal-fields. The most advanced, scientific, and effective methods of classifying and valuing the nation's remaining coal lands possible under the present law have been adopted, and the evident intent of the policy initiated by Secretary Garfield and now further advanced by Secretary Ballinger is to promote development and economical utilization, and at the same time to obtain adequate returns from these valuable lands.

There is, of course, some opposition to the increased valuation which the Government is placing upon its coal land. It may be conceded that the policy of basing the price on quantity and quality of the article sold will not encourage purchase by speculators,

but it is maintained that the Government valuation will not impede the disposition of the coal deposits for purposes of utilization. The real development of the West will be promoted, not retarded. Moreover, those who would oppose the policy, even in the West, must be greatly in the minority when it is considered that the coal receipts go into the Reclamation Fund for the irrigation of arid lands. The greater the coal receipts the more money for Government irrigation and home-making, while at the same time the burden of increase in coal-land prices does not fall upon the settler, but upon the mining corporation. The classification and higher valuation of the public coal lands hold out the assurance of a large and increasing income to the irrigation fund for years and decades to come. The coal-land sales for December, 1908, and January, 1909, amounted to $98,657, or at the rate of nearly $600,000 a year. This alone would convert into homes 20,000 acres of desert land. Taking as a basis $30 an acre as the cost of reclamation by irrigation, it will be seen that every acre sold of Government $300 coal land will reclaim for homes ten acres of desert and every acre of coal sold at $600 will reclaim twenty acres of desert. More recent transactions indicate that the Government coal-land sales will range greatly in excess of these figures.*

PROVIDES A VAST FUTURE IRRIGATION FUND

Any estimate of the total value of the Government coal lands on the basis of the present valuations is naturally something of a guess, since many important fields have not yet been examined in detail; but leaving out of consideration the great lignite fields and estimating the average value of the remaining 40,000,000 acres of higher-grade Government coal lands at even $50 an acre there would result an aggregate contribution to the Reclamation Fund of two billion dollars, or sufficient to reclaim to fertility every irrigable acre in the West without expense to the nation. In fact, under the Reclamation law this would all eventually come back into the general treasury.

IS THERE A MARKET FOR GOVERNMENT COAL LAND AT INCREASED PRICES?

It is often asked in this connection whether, with 40,000,000 acres of coal land in the West now in private ownership, including beds eighty feet thick of solid, high-grade coal, there will ever be within the present generation any demand for the Government high-grade coal lands at $200, or $400, or possibly $800 an acre. Most certainly there will be a demand for such lands; for there is scarcely an opportunity in the United States to-day which promises such safe and liberal returns to the investment of capital. The Western coal-fields have become far and away the biggest asset of national irrigation. Everything points to an active and rapidly increasing demand for these lands under the present valuation scheme; in fact, the very classification by the Geological Survey has given them fixed values in the eyes of prospective purchasers.

The statement is occasionally heard that this policy of higher Government valuation is playing directly into the hands of the big companies. They themselves own great coal tracts, and this high pricing of the public coal lands, it is stated, will kill all independent competition. Such statements are the reverse of the truth, for as a matter of fact the big coal companies themselves,—the Union Pacific Coal Company, the Rocky Mountain Coal Company, and others,—are to-day leasing from other parties and working coal lands on a 10-cents-a-ton royalty basis and thus actually paying in royalties from four to ten times what the Government would charge the entryman as a cash price for similar coal lands.

Viewed in the most conservative light the Government's classification of its coal lands not only reduces the danger of monopoly in the great Western coal-fields and provides against overproduction and wasteful competition but it secures to national irrigation an ever increasing and enormous fund for the reclamation of the nation's waste places which can only be figured in hundreds of millions of dollars.

* At the Salt Lake City land office alone, during the single month of September, 1909, $200,000 worth of coal-land sales were made, and fifty declaratory statements filed for purchase of additional coal tracts, ranging from 40 to 160 acres each and aggregating probably another $200,000.

INTENSIVE RAILROADING

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

THROUGH the night air to the summit of the mountain where we stood came the alternating puffs and snorts of two engines down the line. They seemed far apart and moving in opposite directions, but they were really the beginning and the end of the same train, this engine that hauled and that other one that pushed. The train was known officially as "317," out of Cumberland at midnight with a load of 3000 tons of coal for the seaboard. It was climbing a 1 per cent. grade to the top of the ridge, and that meant the straining to its utmost of every pound of power and an industrious fireman in the cab if the load was to go over the hill in one section. By the sparks that showered skyward we traced the train's course and a sharp curve gave us an instant glimpse of the blazing firebox.

After a little the rails at our feet brought news of the oncoming of the train; then there was an underground roar and the earth trembled and we stepped back to the protection of the siding to measure the height and weight and length of this enormous bulk of engines and cars. The leader was of great size, 125 tons' weight, the General Manager said, of the consolidation type that could pull a train on the level to the draw-bar capacity. Its drivers were higher than our heads. The engineman in his cab looked out from what seemed to be a great elevated perch. We began to count the cars, loaded to the tops with coal fresh mined, forty tons to the car. "Now look out for her," shouted the General Manager (we were counting in the sixties), "and see her work." Out of the dark came a great, towering shape like the black hull of a liner. But it had the boiler of a locomotive, a boiler the length of two or three of an ordinary engine and its frame seemed as tall as the pines leaning over the track. The engine moved with grace, pushing its load with no more apparent effort than that put forth by a maid propelling a baby carriage, and seeming nowhere near the limit of its pushing capacity. So it passed slowly up the grade and into the blackness of the night.

We were back in the General Manager's car. That official was sitting at a table rapidly calculating with pencil and paper. He figured for a long time, then looked up with the radiant smile of a man who has worked out a scheme of greatest moment to mankind.

"That Mallet engine you saw pushing the train will revolutionize railroading," he remarked. "It is already doing so. It is the greatest new factor in the transportation business of to-day. It does the work of two of our biggest engines and of three of the smaller types and does it better and with less effort and at greatly reduced cost. The train load of 3000 tons that just went up the road called for one engine and two helpers before. We sometimes had to split the train in two before we got up the grade. If we wanted it to go slower we could put on a few more cars. We haven't tested out old '910' yet. She cost $25,000 at the shops, but she will pay for herself in a year and a half. That's what her makers guarantee. I claim that she will do it in twelve months. We have just put on two of these Mallets and, green as they are, they are saving us $3000 a month."

Then he showed me his figures, which told how one of these new giants of the rails which are built to weigh from 200 to 300 tons and are 100 feet long, the weight and length of a complete freight train unit a dozen years ago, could be pressed for more work than two or three of the ordinary type engines, which meant a daily reduction of from $30 to $40 per engine in crew hire, or an annual saving in labor alone of approximately $10,000 for every engine it replaced, with the economy in fuel along proportionate lines. He told of one of these Mallets that was working out on Hill's road in the Cascade Mountains and doing 50 per cent. more labor with a 35 per cent. saving in coal than the former largest type of engine, of another that was hauling over 30 per cent. more load and burning 27 per cent. less coal per mile of those on the 2 per cent. Sierra grades of the Southern Pacific, which have about doubled efficiency at one-third former costs, and of the giant of them all, just delivered to the Santa Fé, whose weight, with tender, is 700,000 pounds. These

figures did not take into account the great relief from congestion to a railroad with mountain grades, where it is necessary to use many helper engines, which get in the way of revenue traffic when they are going back empty for their loads.

This is one phase of intensive railroading. The English farmer and the French peasant, limited to a small plot of land, cultivate it to the last inch and raise from 100 to 150 per cent. more grain per acre than the American farmer whose lands spread out beyond his vision. Congested cities relieve congestion in piling stories upon stories until there is a population of thousands hundreds of feet above the street. The railroad is crowded in another direction and has been forced to find relief, and therefore, profit, by new means. Rates decline, the price of materials goes up, labor never ceases with its demands for a better wage, and shippers lie in ambush awaiting the approach of the forerunners of higher rates. Combinations of railroads bring their economies. But these are small. Traffic understandings within the limits of the law create a larger volume of business and a more economic routing of it. This only adds a small per cent. to gross revenue. If the stockholder is to be served and dividends are to be paid the railroad must apply intensive principles in its operations. That is what the up-to-date general manager and his staff are doing. In most cases we find the application of this intensive principle to railroading on systems that have most recently shown great wealth.

The so-called Mallet compound engine, which is really nothing more than two engine bodies combined in one, a sort of locomotive pair of Siamese twins, is but an illustration of this new means of overcoming growing expense with greater economy in operations. It is a labor-saving medium and one that will enter largely into the arguments of labor unions for higher wages of engineers and firemen. Personally I do not think that the railroads have given sufficient consideration to the larger individual unit of revenue which the crews manning these great locomotives produce, or that they reward them in proportion to their increased revenue production.

Another instrument for economy is the larger type of steel and wooden cars. The traveler nowadays sees scattered about the country very few of the old twenty-ton capacity wooden box cars. Most of them are going to rot on side tracks as the summer quarters of construction gangs. It does not pay to haul them. A few years ago forty tons was the maximum capacity of a coal car, now it is fifty tons, and very soon it will be seventy tons. Units of railroad measurement are expanding in all directions. The train load quickly catches up to the maximum endeavor of the engines that haul it. The strength of railroad bridges and track increases as the weight of equipment grows. If it does not, then there is speedy disaster. If you ask why one road has its Mallets and Consolidateds and its half-mile long trains of steel cars and its neighbor none of these things the answer usually is that the latter cannot sustain them. It would be physically crushed beneath the load.

It costs no more to move a loaded car than an empty one. The additional friction of the former is not enough to count against it when fuel consumption is considered. By the same reckoning a car loaded to three-quarters of its capacity carries a profit beyond the first consideration of gross revenue over the one half loaded. Extending this to an entire train it costs no more to move fifty cars than thirty, or seventy than fifty, provided the engine power, or, speaking technically, "tractive effort," is great enough. This is the science of transportation that James J. Hill developed and has carried to such an extreme that he is said to have advised a station agent not to ship a corpse until he got a full carload. E. H. Harriman, in his short career, developed it in even more intense form, and progressive railroads, east and west of the Mississippi River, are now taking it up as their greatest relief and the quickest means to an end in satisfactory profit.

As a result of these methods we see to-day the assembling of trains of enormous length and weight combining the loads of several trains of days gone by and cars whose average annual load is increasing from 5 to 10 per cent. It is obvious that concentration of this sort spells economy in labor, in fuel, and in dispatching. It reduces the number of accidents. Under the old practice, for example, a mixed train of twenty coal cars and ten box cars, approximating 1100 tons revenue weight, started out from a terminal with one engine. The gross freight revenue at one cent a ton a mile would be $1100 for every 100 miles run, assuming that the cars were all loaded. Take a modern illustration: A train of sixty cars, or 2400 to 3000 tons, permitted by the increase of locomotive power which costs no more for the 100

ONE OF THE GIANT FREIGHT LOCOMOTIVES OF THE SANTA FÉ RAILROAD

(Weight of engine, 462,450 pounds; weight of engine and tender, 700,000 pounds; diameter of boiler, 7 feet; diameter of cylinders, 26 and 38 inches; piston stroke, 34 inches; steam pressure, 220 pounds; length of firebox, 10 feet 9¾ inches; width of firebox, 6 feet 6⅞ inches; depth of firebox, 6 feet; diameter of driving wheels, 5 feet 3 inches; tractive effort, 108,300 pounds; length of engine, 60 feet; total length of engine and tender, 100 feet. Only about three-fourths of the tender shows in the picture)

mile run than the smaller engine, but which creates from $2500 to $3000 in revenues. Here we have the results after which the transportation officials of railroads are aiming. The Virginian Railway, to build which the late H. H. Rogers pledged his great fortune and whose construction changed the entire physical aspect of parts of the State where it was put down, is moving train loads of coal a mile long, consisting of as many as 125 cars of fifty tons capacity. Its ponderous engines can move these trains from the mines to tidewater with no effort, and each train load of this exceptional sort produces a gross revenue of between $7000 and $8000. This is done under test, however, and is not the ordinary practice.

It is argued, with some justice, that, while the railroad is bettering its position by means of the larger units, the shipper is suffering poorer service. This, however, does not apply to the general proposition, for most of the heavy loading is on low-grade freight whose movement need not be hurried. The development of the merchandise express shipment by the railroad more than offsets the disadvantages from former methods.

In the ways I have indicated, therefore, the railroads of the United States have met and are overcoming extreme difficulties. These do not include the effort that is directed toward economical results through the lowering of grades or the making of lines straighter and for which the annual expenditure in the United States involves millions of dollars. The early builders of railroads followed paths of least resistance. They were in a hurry to get their roads finished and were compelled to build cheaply. This has subsequently involved the practical reconstruction of hundreds of miles of lines in the West, where the old iron trail runs in queer places when the modern highway is considered. Railroading has become a science and intensive railroading a necessity. It is not to be disputed that many of the roads are making larger profits per mile than ever before in spite of larger costs. That they should be penalized for it in increased taxation, in the different restrictions that Congress and State Legislatures are disposed to inflict I seriously question, as by such goads initiative, inventive genius, the ability to meet difficult situations by greater endeavor, characteristics in the individual which we applaud, are placed at a discount and there follows indifference and poor service against which the American public most loudly complains.

ON THE DECREASE IN THE MINISTRY

BY CYRUS TOWNSEND BRADY

IT is alleged on all sides that, proportioned to the membership and the growth of the church, there is a growing decrease in the number of clergy in service. This condition, if the allegation be correct, discloses a vital weakness. How shall men believe on the Son of God without hearing about Him? and, How shall they hear about Him without a preacher? are queries as old as St. Paul. The need of ministers of the Gospel,—I love that old-fashioned term,—is as great now as in the Apostle's time. Any diminution in the supply, if such there be, indicates a most serious condition; and every man who has the spread of the Gospel at heart and the development of Christ's kingdom among men upon his soul must needs feel grave concern when he thinks upon the problem. Whether there be a proportionate decrease in the number of the clergy or not, it is evident that such is the demand from every quarter for clergymen that there are by no means enough men to meet it. The work has outgrown the supply of workers and we are confronted everywhere by opportunities which cannot be seized for lack of men.

In my own church (Protestant Episcopal) in 1889 we had 3895 clergymen on the rolls, which in 1908 had increased to 5424, or 39 per cent. In the same twenty-year period the communicants increased from 459,003 to 874,496, or an increase of 90 per cent. The number of candidates for orders in the last ten years has shown an actual decrease. In 1898 there were 571; in 1908, 438,—a loss of 23 per cent. In the last five years the number has been practically stationary, fluctuating between 464 and 436. In the three years from 1904 to 1907 the increase in the total number of clergy has amounted to only 158.*

To go further back than the twenty-year period, I quote the following from a recent and very startling paper by Dr. Samuel Hart, of Middletown, Connecticut:

> In forty-eight years the number of our communicants has increased by 453 per cent., the number of clergymen by 158 per cent., and the number of our candidates for Holy Orders by 61 per cent. In the last twenty-four years the increase of communicants has been 136 per cent., of clergymen 51 per cent., and of candidates 14½ per cent., or at about one-eleventh the rate of the increase of communicants. We have now, as has been noted, 469 candidates for Orders, one being furnished by (or for) every 1859 communicants. If there were one for every 908 communicants, as in 1883, we should have now 960; if one for every 480 communicants, as in 1859, we should have 1816.

FACTS FROM VARIOUS DENOMINATIONS

In the decade from 1898 to 1908 in the Southern Presbyterian Church there was a 12 per cent. increase in the number of churches, a 24 per cent. increase in membership, but only a 12 per cent. increase in the number of clergymen at work. The ordinations in 1898 were seventy, in 1908 but forty-two, a decrease of 40 per cent. In the Baptist Church during the same period there was an increase of 10 per cent. in the number of churches, 20 per cent. in the number of members, and 14 per cent. in the number of ordinations. In the Congregational Church there was a 5 per cent. increase in the number of ministers in that time, as against a 36 per cent. increase in members. In Congregational theological seminaries in 1881 there was one senior to every 4000 church members, or one to every 2000 church families. In 1908 there was one senior to every 8000 church members, or one to every 6000 families. The Presbyterian Church reports in ten years an increase of 32 per cent. in membership, 30 per cent. in the number of churches, with a 25 per cent. increase in the number of ministers. In 1898 there were 290 ordinations, in 1908 but 182, a decrease of 42 per cent.

All these statistics have been furnished me by officials of the various churches referred to. They are presumably more correct than the United States Census (Bulletin No. 103), which compares figures for 1890 and 1906. The bulletin is confessedly incomplete and probably more incomplete for the earlier than for the later date, so that the statements made by the various secretaries are more to be depended upon than the following table which I have compiled from the bulletin in question:

* These statistics are taken from the *Living Church* almanacs for the years mentioned.

PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE FROM 1890 TO 1906.

	Communicants. Per ct.	Church bldgs. Per ct.	Value of property. Per ct.	Clergymen. Per ct.
Baptist churches	52.5	33.0	69.9	70.7
Congregational churches	36.6	22.3	45.9	14.7
Methodist churches	25.3	30.0	73.6	32.5
Presbyterian churches	43.3	22.8	58.3	19.2
Protestant Episcopal	66.7	37.9	54.0	29.5

MEN PREPARING FOR THE MINISTRY

According to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education in 1888 there were 6989 theological students in the United States of all varieties, including Roman Catholic. In 1898 the number had increased to 8261, in 1905 it had decreased to 7580, a loss of 8 per cent. in the seven years, although there was a net gain of 8 per cent. for seventeen years. Every church in the list shows a decrease of from 37 per cent. down, except the small body of Reformed churches, which shows an increase of 15 per cent., and the so-called "minor denominations and nonsectarians," which show an increase of 115 per cent. During the seventeen-year period there was a gain of 277 per cent. in law students, 93 per cent. in medical students, and 153 per cent. in dental students.

In the correspondence which has been brought about by the preparation of this paper a number of documents, pamphlets, letters, and other essays dealing with probable causes have been sent me. Several of the leading popular magazines of the country have recently discussed the problem. These all have been carefully considered.

DISTANCED BY OTHER PROFESSIONS

The Rev. Joseph Wilson Cochran, D.D., secretary of the Board of Education of the Presbyterian Church, has cited reports of the United States Bureau of Education to show that in the number of candidates for the professions, theology has been distanced by law, medicine, and dentistry. Thus in 1870 there were 166 physicians to the million of population in this country; in 1906, 291. In 1879 there were forty-two law students to the million of population; thirty-six years later there were 180. Dentistry had six students to the million in 1870; in 1906, eighty. Theology, on the other hand, had eighty-four students in 1870 to the million of population, and in 1906 but ninety.

The same authority states that the great Eastern colleges and universities have become negligible factors in supplying theological students. In 1904 less than 2½ per cent. of the graduates of Yale, Harvard, Princeton, and Columbia were planning to enter the ministry.

STAGNATION MEANS DEATH

Whatever be the value of these statistics, it is undeniably true that every church needs more ministers and is constantly seeking to increase the supply to meet the demand. There is not a church paper in the land which does not present evidence of this fact in its columns, and it is pertinent to the discussion to remember that even the keeping pace by the number of ministers with the increase in the communicants and in church buildings is not sufficient. The growth of the churches must largely exceed that of the population, and the growth in the ministry must exceed the growth of the churches, for I hold it to be a truism that more ministers make more churches and more churches make more members. Merely to keep pace or even to increase slightly is practically to stand still, and to stand still is eventually to die, so there is little comfort to be taken even from the most favorable of these statistics or from the most favorable construction of them.

A DIMINISHED SUPPLY

Considering, therefore, that the popular impression is now statistically demonstrated, inquiry into the causes of the decline and decrease is not only in order but necessary, for it is obvious that no remedy can be applied and no cure perfected without a knowledge of the cause. Even psycotherapy requires expert diagnosis. It is certain that this decrease can be ascribed to no one cause, but that it is due to a variety of causes of different values.

In the first place, the source of supply has radically decreased. I give it as my deliberate judgment, having made some study and investigation of the matter and speaking not at random, that in the class in which the larger part of the membership of the church is to be found there is a shocking and alarming decrease in the number of children springing therefrom. In other words, race suicide begins in the so-called better classes, the more highly educated, the wealthier, the more cultivated classes. I admit this with shame and sorrow. The average to which we point with pride when considering vital statistics, deaths and births, is maintained by the poorer and humbler folk, —God bless them! The ministry of the church, as I believe, comes from the class which produces the fewest children.

Even the ministry itself partakes of the tendency, for the families of the married clergy are very much smaller than they were. For instance, in a convocation in which I formerly lived there were sixteen clergymen; twelve of them were married, two were celibates, and two were bachelors. The twelve clergymen were fathers of but twenty-six children. Of the twenty-six probably half were girls. Two had none, two had one, three had two, three had three, one had four, and one, the writer, had six. The average was little more than two to a clergyman.

In a parish of which I was once rector the number of childless families who rented pews was greatly in excess of the number who had children, and yet some of these families had been church families, so-called, for generations, and had been represented in the ministry repeatedly. In the Sunday-school of that parish there were about 350 children, as against nearly three times as many confirmed members. In the whole diocese, which was a typical American diocese of the first class, there were over 20,000 communicants as against 8000 children in the Sunday-schools. It is sometimes said that the Episcopal Church has a larger proportion of education, culture, and wealth than any other church in the land. However this may be, the decreased number of children in this church of the rich and the cultured is an obvious fact. The Presbyterian and Congregational churches, in which social conditions probably approximate our own, have the same melancholy tale to tell.

LACK OF UNITY IN CHURCH WORK

But churches in which,—to their honor be it said,—children abound are found making the same plea. In a recent number of *The Universe,* a Roman Catholic paper published in Cleveland, it is stated that owing to the demand for priests in every diocese in the land four vacancies for chaplaincies in the United States Army allotted to the Roman Catholic Church cannot be filled. The Methodist Church enters the same complaint, with regard to trained men. So that while the first point I have made I think is not without value, further causes must be sought elsewhere.

I have stated the first reason as the decrease in the source of supply; the second is surely in the diversity of appeals. American Christianity has become so divided and subdivided that there is forced upon the minds of the thoughtful people an appreciation of the economic wastefulness involved in the presence in an average community of, say, eight or ten thousand people of thirty or forty means to an end which should be achieved much more satisfactorily by a combination and concentration of these various and more or less antagonistic forces into a few entirely co-operating. The young man who might think of the ministry and who is serious enough for his reflections to be of any value, sees everywhere instance after instance of weak, struggling, sometimes quarreling, churches, none of them big enough to take up the time of a full-grown man, and none of them making the impression on the community that a full-grown man with such machinery back of him as the churches afford ought to make. And the spectacle discourages him, gives him pause!

CONFUSION OF DOCTRINAL STANDARDS

For the third point I should say that there was a great lack of integral unity. Even in his own church the candidate for the ministry not only finds all sorts and conditions of men, which is right, and all sorts and conditions of opinions and interpretations of facts, which, with reserve, we may call right also; but he finds all sorts of opinions and ideas as to what are the facts which, without reserve, we may characterize as wrong. There is a feeling of unrest, a feeling of the inadequacy of doctrinal standards, a feeling of incertitude, a feeling that after all the thing which is vehemently insisted upon to-day may be indifferently witnessed to-morrow, disregarded the day after, denied the next week, and laughed out of court at the end of the month.

The loosening of the grasp upon dogmatics, the tendency to minimize credal requirements, the carelessness with which interpretation that denies and explanation that destroys are received, the weakness of the church in bringing to account violators of her laws and wanderers from her standards, the treachery that is permitted within her ranks, which is even encouraged by certain elements; the indifference to their solemn obligations of many high in the church, the juggling with which they seek to avoid the natural consequences of and inferences from their words, the casuistry, not to say chicanery, with which they palter with statements which have meant one simple thing since they were enunciated, all terribly unsettle the minds of men. To-day the candidate approaches the matter with Pilate's exclamation on his lips: "What is truth!" and in

the multitude of counselors, contrary to the Scriptural statement, he finds no wisdom. Have the churches standards of belief or have they not? If they have, what are they? Deciding upon them, have they any power of maintaining them? The church desires to coerce no man's opinion, of course, but cannot the church define its belief in no uncertain terms and require all its ministry to conform thereto or seek more congenial organizations?

On the other hand, the minister is often required to surrender a certain part of his intellectual freedom to prejudice and ignorance. Let the minister take a decided stand on matters which are now well-nigh universally settled by scientific investigators, but which have not yet overcome the inheritance of centuries, and he is set down as heretical, dangerous. His mental independence is hampered by the opinion of some business man who has never had a chance to study the subject upon which he holds such dogmatic views, or the conclusion of some otherwise worthy matron who learned all about it from her grandmother. Ministers who have decided opinions feel that they cannot express them or they will get into trouble with the unthinking portion of the congregation, which is always in the majority.

INADEQUATE SUPPORT

To the lack of supply, to the disunion of the forces, to the uncertainty of belief, to the intellectual slavery of knowledge in bond to ignorance, may be added personal considerations which in one form or another are financial. These may be approached under two heads,—the total inadequacy of the support which the would-be minister can hope to secure for himself and those dependent upon him during the greater part of his ministry and the consequent entire inability to make provision for his old age. Closely co-ordinated with these is the well recognized lack of material independence that comes from such financial exiguity, and added to these is the clerical blacklist. Volumes could be written on any one of these subjects.

Take, for instance, the inadequacy of clerical stipends, which appear to average between $600 and $900 in different churches. In most cases they were fixed fifty years ago, and in cases where they are fixed to-day the standards elsewhere, which are those of the past, obtain. Any skilled laborer receives more pay than the average clergyman, and most unskilled laborers, save the mere hewers of wood and drawers of water, receive, if not more, quite as much as the ministry, and with no corresponding demand upon them for expenditure.

It is said that a fair basis of comparison for the minister is the average income of those to whom he ministers. I do not think this is a fair basis, for the minister has demands upon him which those to whom he ministers know nothing of and are not compelled to meet as a rule, but if it were a fair basis, his stipend would still fall far below the amount required.

NO PROVISION FOR OLD AGE

That being the case, it follows that the second consideration is inevitable. If he does not receive salary enough to keep his wife in comfort and to educate his children modestly he cannot lay up anything for old age. A hard and fast age line is being drawn for all the clergy below episcopal rank. Youth must be served and congregations must be served by youth. A group of gray-bearded laymen who are charged with the administration of local affairs would not for a moment think of calling a man whose years approached their average. They take a callow youngster in preference, and then break his heart because he has not the wisdom and the tact that their long experience have given them. Of course, there are exceptions. There are old men who are still leaders of great churches and who are great powers in the church; but I am speaking of the average, and what I say cannot be gainsaid.

After a man has passed a certain period, which differs in different people, his compensation begins to decrease rapidly. The fact that it may never have been adequate may not make any difference. It decreases just the same, and he approaches old age in about the most pitiable condition in which any professional man can find himself. He has given the best years of his life to the service of his fellowmen for an entirely inadequate support. He has done it cheerfully and uncomplainingly. He has not only eaten the bitter bread of dependence, which is bad enough, but he has compelled his wife and his children, if he has either,—and in my judgment he should have both,—to do the same thing, which is worse. And now when he is old he has to be supported by the meager provision of an entirely inadequate general fund, requests for contributions to which are looked upon by the ordinary layman as a nuisance.

THE ECCLESIASTICAL BLACKLIST

In ecclesiastical life the workings of the blacklist, unofficial, intangible, indefinable though it be, are unchecked and unhindered. Let the clergyman make a mistake, not necessarily in morals but in manners or in methods; let him fail in a particular work, be the causes what they may, no matter how much of the result is due to his own ineptitude or how much is due to the ignorance or the malice of others, he has to take the brunt of it and bear the burden of it, go out before the world with it back of him. Man after man have I seen and known whose career has been blasted, ruined, because of something which at most was a very venial fault, by no means irreparable. It is the saddest phase of clerical life. Not only the question of his bread and butter depends upon his securing the approval of the village tyrant and sometimes of the urban ecclesiastical despot, but his work, the work to which he has given himself, is spoiled, his whole training is wasted, his future is impaired, because he has not pleased somebody who happens to be the person naturally consulted by other people, lay or cleric, when he is being inquired about and considered for another field. The average man does not look forward with relish to a position with such possibilities. The usual every-day hero and martyr is not only born but he must be bred to the sacrificial point.

Again there is the persistent influence of puritanical views which would fain conform the conduct of the clergy to rules and regulations which have long since become obsolete for the rest of the world. Lingering and archaic opinions as to the proprieties force the minister into positions apart from the people whom he serves. The minister may not go to the play, for instance, even when it is a play which would benefit him physically, mentally, and spiritually. The rest of the congregation will go, but he must remain away and set a good example,—to whom and for what, pray? The position is utterly irrational and senseless, but opinion on the matter is well nigh universal.

It is a cumulation of these things which has caused the steady decline in the number of candidates for the ministry, and which accounts for the terrible situation.

It is all summed up by the remark of a son of a clerical friend of mine who replied to the urgings of his father that he should elect the ministry as his vocation:

"No, father, I see you and mother wretchedly poor. I see you denied all the things which go to make life worth living. You can't buy books; you can't travel; you can't enjoy yourselves in any way that involves the expenditure of money; you can't give mother clothes such as the women she goes with wear. The house we live in is miserably inconvenient and badly furnished. I am denied the pleasures and opportunities that other boys of my age and my position enjoy. I see you come home humiliated, insulted, broken, and helpless. Your profession doesn't attract me at all."

Such things in one way or another have been said to many of us, and that these words come from those who know us best and have the best evidence for judging conditions is the saddest part of it. I almost dare say that ignorance of conditions is responsible for the fact that we have as many candidates as we do. Of course, some one will say that it all comes down to this: Is the spirit of self-sacrifice still abroad in the land? I answer that it is. There was perhaps never so much of it. For any good cause, still as of old, multitudes of men will die cheerfully. Nor has the call to serve God lost its old appeal to humanity. There is more Christian service now being rendered by lay men and women than ever before in the history of the world. Perhaps that is another reason why the ministry does not appeal as it once did. Men can serve their fellowmen in brotherhoods, societies, and other organizations without incurring all the awful penalties now visited upon the Christian ministry.

I know there are compensations in the ministry of which the layman cannot know; whatever be the condition of his ministry, however great be his success or failure, the minister knows what these compensations are, but we clergymen must not make the mistake of looking at the inside from the inside, but look at it from the outside as the laymen do. The candidates for the ministry do not know these things, and while it is true we tell them of them, yet words seem to weigh but little in the face of grim, tremendous, tragic facts.

If these considerations be worthy of discussion, if what I have said be true, I trust that others will find it possible to suggest things that may be done to right them. In conclusion it is only fair to my own individual work and my own people to say that I personally am not suffering from any of the causes mentioned above.

160,000 AUTOMOBILES THIS YEAR

BY E. M. WEST

THE development of the motor-car industry in America has been so rapid in the last five years that it has actually outgrown statistics. The trade associations which keep in closest touch with the situation are unable to furnish adequate figures of the production of cars for the past two years. Estimates compiled by both associations show that in the year 1910 it is expected that 200,000 automobiles will be made in America.

As near as estimates can make it, there were produced in 1909, 110,000 cars. This was an increase of 25,000 over the production of the previous year, when the output of cars in America was exactly doubled; 1907 practically doubled the output of 1906, and 1906 showed a gain of 60 per cent. over the previous year's production. In other words, in the past five years the output of cars has increased seven-fold, while in 1910 the production planned is thirteen times the number of cars made in 1905.

The manufacture of automobiles in America in five years has not only advanced remarkably in numbers, but the improvement in the product has been even more striking. Five years ago the European car markedly outclassed the American-built machine. With the production of modern automobile machinery and the increased knowledge of metals, the American car is now built even better than the foreign-made machine. Hand work employed in foreign factories may produce a finer finish of individual parts, but the advance of American manufacturing methods and American design has more than counterbalanced this foreign advantage. There continues to be a market for foreign cars in America, and doubtless in a certain class a market will always continue, but the yearly increase of imports is small, and the probability is that it will diminish from this time on.

Five years ago the selling of automobiles was largely restricted to urban and Eastern districts. To-day in the consumption of American product the West far outranks the East. This Western demand is largely responsible for the great number of low-priced cars that have recently been introduced, so that the average cost of automobiles has been reduced to about one thousand dollars. There has been no diminution in the demand for high-priced vehicles. Most of the prominent factories which have made reputations for their products have greatly increased their output, but where the increase has been 10 to 25 per cent. in high-priced cars, the low-priced product has been increased from ten to twenty-fold. Experienced automobile manufacturers hold the belief to-day that the demand for high-priced cars is little greater than the production, but in low-priced cars the demand is nearly double the capacity of the manufacturing plants.

There are engaged in the retailing of automobiles throughout the United States 5200 agents to-day. These agents have placed orders with the various factories in excess of 200,000 cars. The manufacturers will not be able to fill these orders. The absorption of cars by the public is a slower process, but there is small doubt that any well-made car will be largely oversold.

It is not possible to increase the production. First, because of the difficulty in securing material, and second, because the makers of parts are unable to supply the demand. Few cars are now made in toto in their own factory. Such manufacturers as do make the essential parts of their cars, buy frames and springs and other parts from parts makers. In addition there are many so-called manufacturers who assemble their product,—buying the parts from various subsidiary manufacturers and assembling them as their finished product. The inability of these subsidiary manufacturers to increase their facilities and to secure material will be responsible for the failure of the automobile factories to supply the demand.

It is expected when conditions are reviewed a year hence, that 1910 will have produced 160,000 automobiles, or 20 per cent. below the estimated output. To make even this number will tax the capacity of contributing factories to the limit. Even if this estimate be large, the development of six years is amazing. The figures run thus:

1905	15,000	1908	85,000
1906	25,000	1909	110,000
1907	45,000	1910	160,000

There are 263 makers engaged in the

manufacture of cars. Nearly 100 of these are turning out cars which are factors in the motor-car market. Seventy-five others are producing less than 75 cars a year each and the remainder are beginners whose production may be said to be in the experimental state. Michigan alone is producing 102,000 cars, according to the contemplated plans. Ohio ranks next, with 23,000, and Indiana third, with 21,000. In all there are twenty-one States in which manufacturers are producing motor cars. The capital involved is upward of $175,000,000. This figure takes no account whatever of the accessory and parts manufacturers.

It is estimated that the output this year will represent a total of $225,000,000. Not only is this product being sought in America, but an export market is being gradually developed. This phase of the business has attracted little attention, however, because of the demands of the local market. In 1909 it is expected that the export figures will aggregate more than $6,000,000, the $5,000,000 mark having been passed both in 1907 and 1908.

THE $1500 AUTOMOBILE

BY JULIAN CHASE

(Editor of *Motor*)

FOR only one reason can we rightfully contrast or compare the $1500 car of to-day with that of 1905, and that is that they are products selling at the same market price. But the new car is not really a development from the older one, nor is it a car "marked down" from a higher figure. It is an entirely new product. It is a product in which the quality possessed can only be obtained at its selling price through quantity produced. It is a product which for many reasons would have been impossible five years ago. It is the result not merely of improved design which could only come after much expensive experience, study, and investigation and of improved materials, but of increased demand as well. No maker five years ago, however far-sighted he might have been, would have sunk sufficient capital in plant, machinery, and material, even if he had designed the car, to enable him to produce so many of the cars of the class we are considering, that he could sell them at $1500, less the agent's commission, and make a manufacturer's profit. The demand was not great enough to warrant such an investment. The old cars were necessarily produced in much smaller numbers and therefore much less economically than are the medium and lower-priced cars of to-day. They were products in which better quality was obtainable only through increased cost of production per car and not through any of the advantages of production in great quantity, the things which, with the correlative demand, make the $1500 car of to-day a reality.

If in this year 1910 you were offered a motor car with a two-cylinder motor of an estimated 16 horse-power, placed "amidship" somewhere down beneath the seats and footboards in exasperating inaccessibility, with a two-speed gear and a single-chain drive to an exposed differential in approximately the center of the rear axle; if in this year just beginning you were offered such a car with a wheel-base of from 82 to 90 inches and wheels 30 inches in diameter for the sum of $1500, you most probably would comment on the business acumen, or, rather, the lack of it in the general composition of the one who did the offering, and you much more certainly would not buy. And yet this is the sort of car that five years ago was "well worth the money."

Contrast the car described with the $1500 automobile of to-day. In the typical product of this class we have, instead of the two-cylinder motor, a motor with four power-producing units, and this motor placed beneath a hood with its components, where it may be readily reached; instead of an estimated horse-power of 16 we have an actual 30 or 35; instead of the two-speed gear and single-chain drive we have a three-speed gear and a shaft which transmits the power of the motor to gears and differential that are thoroughly enclosed in the rear axle housing; instead of a wheel-base of from 82 to 90 inches, we have one of from 110 to 115 inches, and instead of 30-inch wheels we have wheels 34 inches in diameter. These contrasts are striking, and yet they do not indicate the

greatest differences between the $1500 car of to-day and the $1500 car of five years ago, the difference in performing ability, in reliability, in satisfaction derived.

The superior performing abilities of the $1500 car of to-day, the increased speed and hill-climbing powers, come through refinement of design both in the various parts, such as motors, clutches, change-speed gears, and driving axles, of which the efficiency has been greatly increased, and in the car as a whole. The more frequent application of the power impulses resulting from the use of four cylinders, together with the use of superior materials for the vital parts, make relatively lighter construction possible throughout the car, so that even with an increase of from 25 to 50 per cent. in power the weight of the 1910 $1500 car is no more, and in many cases much less, than that of its predecessors.

We have shown what a man gets for his $1500 in motor-car value to-day. What will this motor car do? It will do anything that one can reasonably expect any car to do. It is a satisfactory touring vehicle for from two to five persons, as it provides comfortable seating accommodations, with plenty of "leg room" and depth of seat and sufficient luggage-carrying capacity. It will average well above 20 miles an hour in long runs over ordinary roads,—unfortunately the kind of road that is still too common,—and it will climb with little or no trouble the worst hills that one meets on the highway.

Even when one owns a number of cars of greater size and power he will find the car of which we write to possess many advantages over the larger ones for that class of service which requires getting about quickly from point to point, and for short runs. For the man who must use a car in his business or profession the $1500 car has sufficient power to take him wherever he would go at as great a speed as he would care to travel and, at any rate, as fast or faster than the law allows, and it is light enough to be economically operated, a feature of great importance. For the contractor who must visit a number of "jobs" each day, for the doctor who must go his rounds, for the salesman with a list of country or suburban customers, the moderate-weight, medium-priced car is an economical means of getting about.

Of course, in estimating the real cost of operation we must consider whether the motorist will drive and care for the car himself, or employ a chauffeur, whether he will house it in his own garage or "board" it out. Without going into these details we can, however, set down certain figures which will necessarily be included in the reckoning. They are those for the gasoline and lubricating oil consumed and for the tires and parts replaced. If a motorist drives 10,000 miles in one of these $1500 cars he will use from 550 to 600 gallons of gasoline, approximately, which will make the fuel item, with gasoline at an average price of 20 cents a gallon, from $110 to $120. The fuel bill will vary, of course, with the character of the "going" and the general condition of the car. For a good car of 30 horse-power and 1800 pounds weight the consumption will amount to 1 gallon for each 15 to 20 miles.

Lubricating oil at a retail price of 60 cents per gallon is consumed by such a car as we are considering at the rate of 1 gallon for each 300 miles. In 10,000 miles, therefore, our motorist would require 33 gallons, which would cost him $19.80.

In running 10,000 miles he probably would use up one and a half sets of tires; and as one set comes with the car he would probably be obliged to buy two additional tires at a cost of $40 each, or $80 for the pair.

We often hear that cars are getting cheaper and that the drop in prices will continue until the happy time arrives when we shall be able to buy for $500 or some such figure as good a car as is now offered us for $1500. Will this time arrive? We now have $500 cars, and mighty good ones, too, cars that are better value than the high-priced ones of some years ago,—much better, for a car which is not better than they were would not sell at all. But that the $1500 car, as we know it now, will sell for materially less is hard to believe. One maker of a standard product at this price recently added some $150,000 worth of new machinery to his plant to enable him to keep his selling prices down to $1500. From what we know now of motor-car making it would seem that the only way in which to reduce the price of the $1500 car is to lower the cost of steel, of machinery, and of labor, or to put less of the first and last into it. But if we do the latter we are not producing the same car at a lower figure, but rather are making a new product. Quantity production which made the $1500 car possible has done what it can; any further reduction in price without a corresponding reduction in quality or size must come, it would seem, through some radical alteration in design or through the use of principles or practices as yet unknown.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

A CENTRAL BANK OF ISSUE

THE history of banking teaches, writes Mr. Charles A. Conant in the *North American Review,* that "financial progress depends in large measure on the existence of a central monetary institution, dowered by law with the power to use its credit without any limits, except those imposed by sound banking policy, for the protection of the national gold stock and national financial security." In Europe nearly every country has its central bank, all of them, with the exception of the Bank of England and the Bank of France, having been formed after 1849. Scotland, Canada, and Mexico are the three apparent exceptions to the system of a central bank; but in each of these countries reliance is placed by the independent banks upon one institution which fulfills practically the functions of a central bank.

In the panic of 1907 "notes and gold were piled up uselessly in many a country town in the United States, while the banks of the great cities struggled by every possible device to keep their reserves somewhere near the requirements of law. The monetary system broke down, and the banks of the United States, in a time of peace and abounding prosperity, suspended currency payments, because the metallic reserve of the country was so hopelessly divided as to be useless."

Through admiration for the United States, the American principle of isolated note-issuing banks has been tried in three countries,—Japan, the Argentine Republic, and Mexico. In Japan "local banks of issue were authorized by a law of 1872. The banks were required to purchase national stocks as the basis of their circulating notes. The notes came back so rapidly for redemption, however, that the banks were authorized in 1876 to redeem them in government paper money, which fell the next year nearly 50 per cent. below par and left the Japanese imitation of our national banking system only an unsightly mass of wreckage." In the Argentine Republic "gold went to a premium of 300 per cent. and every bank of issue suspended (1891) and went into liquidation." In Mexico the system of employing government bonds as the basis of note issues soon went to wreck and was superseded by one based upon the predominant influence of the National Bank of Mexico."

The distribution of surplus capital to new and developing nations lies in the hands of the bankers of London. "If New York would become a serious competitor with them as a center of exchanges, for her share in this process of distribution, it is absolutely essential that she also should possess a financial mechanism capable of handling without risk the largest affairs, guarding the gold stock of the country, and guaranteeing by its strength the soundness of the monetary system."

The foregoing observations of Mr. Conant on the evolution of central banking are followed in the same magazine by a discussion of the central bank plan by Mr. Victor Morawetz, who admits that, inasmuch as America has under her system of independent local banks prospered beyond all other nations, the system cannot be wholly bad. But periodically

> the country has suffered from severe money stringencies which have resulted in panics and widespread disaster. We need a banking system that always will be safe, and that always will serve the needs of industry and commerce. Foreign countries have such safe and serviceable systems. Can we not have such a system in the United States?

Mr. Morawetz is of opinion that the conditions in the United States are so different from those of European countries that "the central banks of Europe cannot fairly be considered precedents for the creation of a similar bank in the United States. Banking and currency questions have been treated as political questions almost from the beginning of our government. Having regard to our political history and to the political conditions which we know to exist, is it reasonable, Mr. Morawetz asks, to suppose that the management and policy of a great central bank could be kept out of politics?

If after the creation of such a bank it should become the cause of sectional differences and

dissensions, and if its management, or perhaps its very existence, should become a political issue, the bank, instead of rendering financial conditions safer and more stable, would make them far more perilous than they are to-day. And if in the end the bank should fail to accomplish its purpose and should be dissolved it would probably pull down with it the political party that was responsible for its existence.

Mr. Morawetz suggests that the desired result might be attained in the United States "without a great central bank, by adopting in modified form such features of the central-bank system as are suited to practical conditions in the United States."

Mr. William Alfred Peffer, the third writer in the *North American Review* symposium on this subject, urges that "by far the greatest benefits to flow from the change to a central government bank of issue could be made to consist in reducing rates of interest and making them uniform throughout the country."

On the fourth day of September, 1906, our national banks,—6137 in number,—reported the amount of their loans and discounts for that day alone to foot up to $4,298,983,316 (cents omitted). . . . A fair rate of interest is 3 per cent. . . . Three per cent. on that amount gives us $128,969,499 as income for one day; and six such days would have paid all the disbursements of the general government for the whole year 1906.

It is objected that "on general principles the National Government ought not to mix in banking affairs." To this it may be answered that the Government is, as Mr. Morawetz points out, already "deeply immersed in the banking business."

Upward of six thousand banks in operation loan paper money by the billion daily, every single piece of which is made by Government employees with Government machinery in Government buildings. And this has been going on for years. . . . Now let the Government do the rest of the work,—the loaning of its own money by and through its own agents and appointees. . . . Let the Treasury of the United States be the central bank, as it was in the years of our great war. . . . Let the central bank loan to the people at 3 per cent., as bankers now lend to them at 5, 6, and more; 1 per cent. of the income would pay all running expenses of the work, and 2 per cent. going into the National Treasury would more than pay all necessary requirements of the National Government.

MISS ADDAMS' REASONS WHY WOMEN SHOULD VOTE

READERS of Dr. Graham Taylor's character sketch of Miss Jane Addams in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for December last will recall the reference to Miss Addams' attitude on the question of woman suffrage:

Claiming that city government has come to be an extension of household economy and has long since ceased to be based upon the ability to bear arms, she contends that the housewife and the mother, the women workers and taxpayers have as much at stake to qualify them for the electorate as men can claim for "manhood suffrage."

In the *Ladies' Home Journal* for January Miss Addams herself states her position with characteristic clearness and force. It is noticeable that in the course of her argument she differs from some other advocates of "votes for women," in that she proposes no radical redistribution of duties and responsibilities between men and women. Miss Addams holds that the suffrage is necessary in order to enable women to care for their houses and perform their family duties on the traditional lines. The modern social organization, especially in our great cities, has made the individual family dependent on the local government for the conditions of decent living. The family's relation to the public cannot be ignored. The mother's responsibility for the proper feeding and clothing of her household, under hygienic conditions, cannot be fully met by the individual woman, save by joining with other women in general movements to obtain legislation.

The same thing is true of the mother's responsibility for the education of her children, and this responsibility consists not merely in seeing that good schools are provided but it extends to oversight of the children out of school hours and to the protection of those who work outside of the home.

To those who maintain that woman might meet these obligations through her influence upon the men of her family Miss Addams replies that nothing is gained when independence of judgment is assailed by "influence," sentimental or otherwise. We should all respect differences of opinion and be tolerant of honest convictions. Women should be permitted to vote, because they can thereby further public measures in which they are interested and many of which belong to them.

COLLEGE "DIVERSIONS" A MISNOMER

IN the dictionaries the word "diversion" has two definitions: (1) "That which diverts one from care or labor, and so affords recreation to mind and body; (2) the act of diverting or turning aside from a course." The fact cannot be gainsaid that in American colleges to-day football, baseball, and athletics generally no longer serve their original purpose of affording "recreation to mind and body," but have become, to a most regrettable extent, the baneful means of "diverting or turning aside" the students from their legitimate work. In a trenchant article on this subject in the *Popular Science Monthly* Prof. John J. Stevenson, of New York University, says:

If a visitor from some outside region should read the college papers, which are encouraged because they give young men an "admirable preparation for journalistic work in after life," he would be convinced that American boys in college think of little aside from professional sport. Appeals to college spirit abound, urging the fellows to attend the games and to bring their friends,—to prevent a deficit in the treasury; lamentations are prolonged, deploring the lack of college spirit shown by muscular men who fail to apply for places on the teams; there are doleful predictions because students do not pay up for support of the several crews, and gloomy forecasts abound because the college is in danger of losing its high standing. If a team has gained a victory, the paper is hardly large enough to hold the story; the work done by the coaches is extolled as entitling them to the everlasting gratitude of the college, for whose advancement they have done so much.

Passing into the college buildings, the visitor may well be excused if he concludes that intellectual prowess is respected as little by the professors as by the students.

The walls are often decorated with trophies won in intercollegiate contests; the names of college champions shine out on the roll adorning the gymnasium, but he finds no roll of honor men in the class-rooms; silver cups and medals of gold, silver, or bronze abound for athletes, but prizes for men who excel in study are few and insignificant; victory in the intellectual arena seems to count for little even with the professors; victory in contests requiring only such abilities as a savage possesses alone deserves permanent record in the shrine of learning. If this visitor go farther in examination of the college plant, he may find that great sums of money have been expended in acquiring athletic fields, in provision for comfortable seating of spectators; that buildings for physical culture often excel in equipment those for mental culture, and that the coaches for teams in athletics are, as a rule, better paid for the time expended than are assistant professors or, in some cases, than even the professors. He will have little doubt that those who have control of college affairs think more highly of the extraneous courses than they do of the college curriculum.

Professor Stevenson pertinently inquires what has been gained by the large expenditures for athletic fields and gymnasia.

Vast sums have been expended, far out of proportion to any possible good that might result. . . . Some colleges have a brief compulsory course in the gymnasium; but the great equipment is utilized more and more each year for teams composed of men whose bodies need no such anxious care. The vast majority of students must gain their physical culture by proxy, by paying generously toward support of their college champions, just as they must secure much of their esthetic culture by supporting publications or teams in chess and debating and by purchasing tickets to glee club concerts,—all for the advancement of the college.

It is not true that, as has been alleged by some of the defenders of intercollegiate contests, those who oppose the waste of time and the diversion of funds are "indifferent to the health of students, desiring that young men become 'mollycoddles.'" On the contrary, most of them are "warm defenders of physical culture; they would be gratified if the course in gymnastics were made more extensive and compulsory, for they recognize that young men who need such training have no desire for it." The ground on which they denounce the present system is that it has "relegated study to the background and has made the proper college work merely an annex to exhibitions. That which is only incidental has been made all-important." As the professor remarks, "Men from foreign universities are astonished to find that Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and other great universities are known to the public generally only as football associations." Here the testimony of Columbia is most valuable. In the REVIEW for December "A Close Observer" wrote:

It is four years since football was abolished at Columbia. . . . It is the unanimous testimony of Columbia professors that the autumn weeks have now, for the first time, become quiet, orderly, and abundant in work. Previously serious academic work began after Thanksgiving. Football dominated everything until that day. The tone of the student-body has improved.

That the effect of the generally existing conditions on the morale of our colleges is increasingly bad is undeniable.

Alumni of less than fifteen years' standing seem to think that they can show their love for

alma mater best by a gift for a grandstand, a stadium or something else to increase interest in team exhibitions; the athlete is the college hero, the mere student is a "dig" without college spirit; worse than all, the new generation of college instructors has grown up in this atmosphere and favors continuance of the condition.

The average student "finds much study a weariness to the flesh; glee clubs, athletics, and the rest increase the weariness; they absorb the chief interest, and there remains only a petty fraction of the original interest to be devoted to study."

Then there is the question of good faith to be considered. The huge funds donated to our colleges were given "for the training of the mind, not for the training of the body." Money secured for gymnasia and the rest "was obtained originally on the plea that the student's body must be cared for that he may do better work with his mind. The colleges have not kept faith with the donors." Coaches "are selected because of their well-known qualifications and are paid accordingly; college instructors are not always selected and paid on a similar basis."

Professor Stevenson believes that the present wretched condition will grow worse, "unless those in control of our colleges change their conception of what a college should be." It will not be changed until "the control of college affairs has passed from the hands of men unacquainted with the actual needs, and has been placed in the hands of those who know what teaching means and who have respect for teachers."

THE PAINTER OF THE HUDSON RIVER—A GERMAN APPRECIATION

"NOT without honor, save in his own country," will doubtless be the verdict of many readers of the article upon Leon Dabo, which appears in *Kunst für Alle* (Munich). The writer is Prof. Paul Clemen, who fills the chair of art history in the University of Bonn and is art curator for the Rhine province. Professor Clemen, while lecturing in America two years ago, made the acquaintance of Mr. Dabo and his work, and enrolled himself in the ranks of the foreign admirers of this artist. The article in question is characteristic of the movement to graft German culture upon America, which corresponds with numerous attempts on the part of German writers and scholars to familiarize Germany with the cultural achievements of America. Professor Clemen calls Leon Dabo "the most striking individuality and the finest colorist of all the younger generation of New York landscape painters," and regrets that "New York at large does not know him."

Leon Dabo was born and reared in Detroit, which later was to become the home of the unique Whistler gallery of Mr. Freer; and, though he left the city at the age of sixteen, "memories of his youth have always attracted him to his native place, and perhaps no one has in like measure filled himself with the beauty of these Detroit Whistlers. Dabo spent his childhood among paintings by Delacroix, Ingres, Courbet, and Whistler, examples of each of these masters being found in the collection of his father, who had been professor of esthetics in Paris." Leon "received his first training in the Ecole des Arts Décoratifs in Paris, then studied in Italy, and, after spending a time in the solitudes of Corsica and Sicily, finally returned to America."

Dabo may be appropriately designated "the artist of the Hudson." To quote Professor Clemen:

> The range of this artist's themes is apparently limited. It centers about the Hudson from New York northward, where there are still stretches of land untouched by building speculation. In the solitude of the country, far out beyond the stony beauty and the horrors of New York, is the artist's home. A short walk brings him to the majestic river which is at this place as broad as an inlet of the sea and which in the west is backed by the towering heights of New Jersey. With this giant stream before his eyes, Dabo has worked for the past ten years, and perhaps half of his pictures may well be considered hymns upon the beauty of the royal river.

Dabo has painted more than a hundred pictures of the Hudson, at all seasons of the year, and in its varying aspects by day and by night. Professor Clemen says of them:

> When he gives us the river itself, he shows it from the high banks of Manhattan, mostly with an elevated horizon, so that the river itself fills about three-fourths of the frame. There is the Hudson in spring: the river in violet-rose tints, the distant mountains vanish-

ing in a bluish-gray and in the foreground some slender trees in bottle-green. Or a summer landscape: the river is a luminous blue and in the foreground are the slender cedars which are characteristic of the region, being swept and shaken by the storms so they can never develop their well-rounded cone; trees with scanty foliage, more often like dried-up stems, seem to trace the outline of the water's edge, and far away the first lights flash up. There is a summer night on the Hudson, which seems quite black like a deep, an endless ink-hole, on the river bank only a few lonely trees and a boat brightly lit up from the windows of a summer hotel, and, beyond, the lights of New Jersey. Then there are two wonderful *fêtes de nuit;* on the river's edge are a multitude of people, their light-gray shadows receiving body only in the light of the red and yellow lanterns strung up between the trees. . . . Then there is the same Hudson in winter: yellowish, gray-purple water and a dull white shore with a few pole-like cedars; and another time a menacing bluish-gray storm-cloud which seems to collect over the pallid white of the snow-cover.

Within the last two years the artist has conquered a new world of motives. He has created a series of pictures which show the city of New York from the water-front; the singularly massive silhouette crowded with turrets as it may be seen from a distance, and the broadside of gigantic sky-scrapers down-town as seen from Hoboken.

The first to seize the fanciful charm of these overwhelming yet grotesque colossi was Colin Campbell Cooper, who fixed their outlines in the glaring sunlight and in the dimness of a mist. Dabo adds a new element: the spectral, fairy-land effect of these towers at night or on early winter evenings with myriads of lights in the crowded windows.

"A Spiritual Impressionist"

Some years ago, in a criticism of Dabo's paintings which appeared in the New York *Evening Post,* J. Nilsen Laurvik, an American art critic, referred to the artist as "a spiritual impressionist." The apt characterization has been repeated since. Now in the current number of the *International Studio* Mr. Laurvik has this to say of Dabo's general quality:

His work represents a singleness of idea and manner to a degree unusual in modern art,—the representation of the ever-shifting and infinite nuances of light and color as shown at all hours of the day on the river-front, and a multitude of variations on this same theme,—that is, light, especially light playing upon the surface of bay or river. This may be called the Dabo manner. Of necessity a certain monotony ensues by reason of this constant repetition of the same theme and occasionally, in his nodding moments, he lapses into a mannerism that verges dangerously close on a formula. But few painters working to-day with a purpose as clearly preconceived as is his could show a greater number of canvases in which this intention has been carried out more consistently and with greater variety and interest.

A BRAZILIAN EXPERIMENT IN PENOLOGY

IN view of the general interest excited by the problem of prison reform, some details contained in a recent number of the *Leitura para Todos* (Rio de Janeiro), regarding an experiment made in Brazil, may not be without value for us, although because of the differences in social and climatic conditions between our country and Brazil, a scheme perfectly practicable in the latter country might be of little use here. The experiment in question is the establishment of a "Correctional Colony" on an island in the province of Dous Rios for those convicted of vagabondage, drunkenness, disorderly conduct, or other minor offenses, the aim being to combat their evil propensities by means of regular discipline and useful work. The Brazilian writer readily admits that many will fail to be reformed by the agencies set in motion. Treating of this, he says:

Of course, all will not profit by the humane effort of the state, as everything depends upon individual temperament, tendencies and inclinations, upon cerebral anomalies, either inherited or due to alcoholism, in fine, upon the ineradicable vice which is present in a considerable number of these delinquents; but it is certain, —and we openly state it here,—that observation and statistics show a percentage sufficiently encouraging of those redeemed by the colony of Dous Rios. It remains to note that, essentially, the support of these people is no heavy burden for the state. They maintain themselves by their own work, a work obligatory for all the inmates, and by which they profit to a certain extent, the amount being given to them as a little capital on their departure from the colony, unless, as sometimes happens, they should elect to remain as free colonists, a piece of land being allotted for their cultivation. The raising of cattle of all kinds is already well developed, the greater part being destined for internal consumption. Fowls are also raised on a large scale and various species of fruit trees are cultivated. . . . An attempt has been made to cultivate the silkworm, an industry which, with us, is as yet in its earliest stages. . . . From what has been shown, it is not extravagant to cherish the hope that within a short time the colony, extending and perfecting the cultivation of the land, developing and encouraging the raising of various kinds of cat-

tle and domestic fowl, will eventually produce not only sufficient for its own consumption but will assure itself an appreciable source of revenue. At the present time there are 570 inmates,—376 men and 194 women,—who have been withdrawn from the practice of vice, from drunkenness, from idleness, from wandering through the streets, indulging in indecent conduct and language. At present in this establishment they represent so much vital and productive force applied to useful work.

The writer notes the good impression made by the colony upon visitors, many of whom are almost disposed to think that some judicial error must have been committed in the condemnation of such apparently orderly and well-behaved persons to deportation. This, however, only serves to show the good effects of the *milieu,* of the gentle and yet firm discipline which prevails. There is a school in the colony where rudimentary instruction is given, the larger part of the inmates not knowing how to read or write. The food provided is, of course, very simple, but amply sufficient, and duly inspected by a state functionary. The hours for work are usually from 6 A.M. to 5 P.M., with the necessary intervals for meals and rest. In conclusion, as an illustration of the feeling of the inmates toward their life in the colony, the writer notes the following instance concerning one of the female convicts:

When she first came to the island she was gaudily attired and quite vain of her fashionably made skirts, her silk waist, her beribboned hair, her neat shoes, and the imitation gold rings on her fingers. The rules of the colony do not admit of any distinctions, and the woman was forced to exchange all her fine garments for the ugly and ill-fitting garb of the institution, in spite of her resistance and protests. However, her conduct during the term of her sentence was good and she seemed to take kindly to the work required of her. . . . One day the newspapers announced her return from the colony, among other convicts who had finished their terms of imprisonment. She appeared to be repentant and reformed. Nevertheless, those who lauded this case of miraculous regeneration,—as complete as it was surprising,—found that they were mistaken, for the woman soon figured again in the police reports as guilty of disorderly conduct of the worst kind. Then it was that in answer to the query as to what could induce her to resume her evil practices, which had already brought her to the penal colony, she frankly replied: "That is just the reason. I am doing everything I can to return to the colony."

AMERICANIZING THE BRITISH COLONIES

THAT Canada, with its close neighbor, the United States, as an example, is aiming to free herself from the mother-country and become an independent nation; that Australia, in spite of its distance from the Union, is also rapidly being invaded by the American spirit, and that there is danger of England losing her West Indian possessions is the contention maintained with a show of reason, by a writer, Otto Corbach, in a recent number of the *Preussische Jahrbücher.*

He asks whether there is any reason to suppose that Canada, had she made common cause with the colonies, would have lagged so far behind her feverishly energetic neighbor. For decades she bloomed obscurely in the shadow of the British Empire; it was not in the latter's interest to accelerate this snail's pace; but since by independent means a more rapid development has set in, the ties between them are obviously growing looser, the Canadian's consciousness of his own strength and responsibility is steadily increasing, and the pan-American policy of the United States gaining ever firmer ground.

American and Canadian interests gradually intertwine. This process is favored by the naval policy of the United States, which is more and more decisively directed against Japan; and Japan, England's ally, is the only power Canada fears; she does not wish to place her sole reliance upon England, which is yearly growing more dependent upon Japan's friendship. Thus this clashing of interests regarding Japan secures Canadian adherence to the Monroe Doctrine, inducing a political harmony which will become an active force as soon as the Canadians shall feel strong enough to assert their independence without the British world-power, as against the United States. Only provisionally,—because they fear they should fall from one dependence into another,—do the Canadians assume an air of satisfaction under the British flag. We must not be misled by the theatrical thunder of the English Imperialists who would rivet Canada to the mother-country with indissoluble chains.

While the Americanization of Canada is easily explicable, it is remarkable that the same process is taking place in Australia.

As late as the close of the last century this could by no means be said,—Australia was still thoroughly British. But it has since become astonishingly Americanized; this manifesting itself in the great as well as the small concerns of public life. In the highest courts American cases are cited more often than English ones.

In food and dress the distinctly American models are followed more and more. Three-

fourths of the artists in the theaters and music-halls are Americans. The book-stalls show more American than English publications. The merchants seek the main channels of world-commerce in America. The Commonwealth is modeled exactly upon the United States. The highest court naturally decides in accordance with American jurists. The feeling of dependence upon England, engendered by her legal lore, can, of course, not flourish in Australia. Since the visit of the American fleet the people have, besides, begun to look to the United States as the "big brother," in case England should be driven to the wall. The fear, therefore, that Australia may be drawn into the pan-American policy of the United States finds increasingly frequent expression in the London press.

The British West Indies, too, are threatened with "Americanization." Their inhabitants have beheld much in the last twenty years which taught them to admire American energy as compared with English sluggishness,—the annexation of Porto Rico, the protectorate and organization of a new government in Cuba, the taking hold of the Panama Canal, and the increasing flow of visitors to the Antilles, notably to Jamaica, creates new social and commercial bonds between this country and the English islands. Economically Jamaica is already wholly dependent upon the United States; the majority of its people are laborers who are beginning to realize,—thousands of them having worked on the Panama Canal,—that they could command double the wages in the United States, and they believe that American possession of the islands would bring American wages.

The small pains England has lately taken to protect her West-Indian possessions has likewise decreased her prestige. The British squadron was withdrawn some years ago; two small cruisers, rarely in evidence, are the only witness of British naval power, while American warships appear with increasing frequency,—always at hand, be the occasion an earthquake or some festivity.

The English Government lately declared that in its naval armament the United States is not reckoned with as a possible enemy. This the English papers reported created a bad impression in the West Indies,—seeming like a hint to the United States that should it at any time seek to possess the islands not a finger would be raised to retain them. Such a moment, the West Indians think, may occur on the completion of the Panama Canal, when Jamaica will assume great strategic and commercial importance for the United States.

The writer closes with saying that it is not Germany, but the United States, that is a menace to England.

When the American type shall supplant the English throughout Canada, Australia, and the West Indies; when, culturally and economically, they shall be drawn closer to the United States than to England, Washington and not London will form the heart of the Anglo-Saxon world. This would naturally redound to the injury of Europe as a whole, and it would, therefore, be the part of wisdom for England and Germany to come to a peaceful understanding and make a united effort in the markets of the world to protect Europe against the universally threatening American peril.

SECULAR MOTIVES FOR GOING TO CHURCH

WE are mostly credited abroad with being an extremely religious nation, or at any rate one that sincerely believes in the doctrines of Christianity, this impression having gained ground through the number of our houses of worship and the size of the congregations. A portion of our foreign critics, however, set down the large American church attendance as Anglo-Saxon hypocrisy. Both opinions—of the majority and of the minority—are cited by Dr. Albert Haas in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Berlin) by way of introducing his own views. He dissents from the theories stated, claims that neither is correct, and gives another explanation altogether for the conspicuously active life of the Church in these United States of America.

One must note, first of all, writes Dr. Haas, that thoroughgoing separation of Church from State, and must also observe that it was not brought about by anti-Christian tendencies in the American people but mainly through the desire of strong and sturdy minds to secure complete liberty of conscience for all worshipers of every denomination. There has never been any question of aggression upon the Church by a political party, and history gives no record of hostility between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities. Now, in consequence of the rigid separation of Church from State, no tenets of religion may be inculcated in the public schools, which, thinks the author, has some practical excuse in the prevailing "chaos of sects." It would be quite impossible for everybody to agree on what should be taught and what omitted.

Thus the American public school ignores religious instruction of the children, leaving it

entirely to their parents. But just as in Europe so in America, nearly all parents desire a religious training for their offspring, even those parents who may themselves be indifferent or skeptic. These, too, think it important that their sons and daughters be informed upon the religious factor in our civilization, for educational reasons if for no other. Religious instruction of the young, then, becomes one of the great functions of the Church in the national life. The Church and the minister, with volunteer assistants, by means of the Sunday schools, perform the task which in Europe devolves upon the ordinary schools. And as the majority of American citizens feel they need the ecclesiastical organization for this part of juvenile upbringing they are quite ready to maintain the Church and its officials.

The parents who hold to no particular creed are satisfied to trust almost any clergyman in whose general intelligence and integrity they have faith and to send their children to the Sunday school by him conducted, whatever be his sect. Among the Protestants, too, a good many send the girls to Catholic convent-schools because of the essentially feminine training they receive at those institutions, where, without proselytizing, the nuns fit out their pupils with decent manners as well as useful knowledge. The average American does not wish his children brought up as heathen; he wants the marriages in his family to take place under sacred auspices, to have his babies baptized, to have those dear to him buried by a clergyman. But from all this one should not deduce profound religiosity; for at the bottom of it might be unreflecting traditionalism or a sentimental adhesion to ancestral custom; "or it might merely denote the prevalent idea of social propriety."

Civic ambition is another cause assigned by this author to the liberal support of the Church on the part of Americans not primarily actuated by religious motives. They want dignified services, handsome decorations, good preaching, competent singing and playing. They desire their parish house of prayer to be well thought of and well visited and the funds they subscribe to be suitably applied. So they take a great interest in the whole conduct of the establishment,—apart from the credit to one's respectability that goes with being seen at church.

Besides, the Church in America offers social attractions and mental diversions.

The Church arranges all sorts of evening lectures and entertainments. Now, a missionary will in popular language relate his experiences in foreign lands with the aid of magic-lantern pictures; again, a famous pulpit-speaker will give an exhibition of his rhetorical skill; or a master of a school affiliated with a certain sect will give an address in that sect's house of worship on some literary, scientific, or artistic topic,—all being expressed so plainly that any member of the congregation can comprehend. And then there are purely social events. The ladies meet, and over their teacups sew for the poor of their communion or make new altar cloths or sacerdotal emblems. On fine summer days there are festivities for children, with consumption of strawberries and whipped cream. Picnics and excursions of all kinds are organized, and the church roof is mended from the proceeds. As these various amusements are connected with the Church, and are supervised by it, they serve to promote harmless gaiety, and parents are glad enough to let their children take part in them instead of in diversions which might be spiritually or physically noxious. For a number of people the Church thus becomes a center of sociability and social life, which is enhanced by the fact that Americans are such unstable residents. When a middle or lower class American comes to live in a new place he of course at first lacks friends and business acquaintance. In the church he may meet both. After service the house of God is not emptied in reverent silence, as with us Germans. Groups form among the benches and in the aisles. In the portico other members of the congregation forgather. Lively chatting is universal. . . . If a stranger is observed for the second time at service, after its conclusion the minister or a prominent layman steps up to him and welcomes him. He is invited to participate in other activities of the communion. At a picnic further acquaintance of the stranger is gained. Inquiries are made about his social standing. Individuals ask him to their houses. He makes friends, joins the flock, and finds himself a recognized citizen.

Dr. Haas then mentions the case of a young man who asked in the question department of an American newspaper how he could form pleasant and reputable female acquaintance. The answer was: Join a dancing course or become a church member. Often, says this very observant and impartial German, a minister is expected to provide his congregation with cultural pabulum, to discuss political questions of the hour, illumine sociological tendencies of the times with the talents of his discourse, or even expatiate on sensational happenings recorded by the press,—all of which would meet with disapproval in Germany. These and further phases of Church life does the writer point out in order to show how the great pride and interest we Americans take in our churches by no means prove us an extraordinarily religious nation, but coincides with the presence of perhaps the same amount of indifferentism or skepticism as might be found in some other lands where there are fewer churches and smaller congregations.

MEDICAL MISSIONARIES IN CHINA—A JAPANESE APPRECIATION

IT goes without saying that the primary motive of missionaries in going abroad is the hope of bringing the people to Christ. Their labors have incidentally assisted to a great degree in the diffusion of secular knowledge. Especially is this true where missionaries are equipped with medical knowledge and skill and thus are enabled to devote their energies not only to the spiritual regeneration of the natives but to the relief of their bodily ailments.

A most striking instance of the activities of evangelical workers, thus setting forth the practical charity of the Good Samaritan, is found in China. A recent issue of *Yen-jin* (the Dust of Peking), published in the Chinese capital, contains an interesting article on the "medical mission" in China, contributed by a Japanese physician attached to the Mikado's legation at Peking. At the outset the writer says that his inquiries into the actual conditions of the hospitals and medical schools maintained by Christian missions were made in Northern China, in the Yangtsu valley, and in Manchuria. While he does not ignore the work of the Catholic missions, his attention seems to have been devoted particularly to that of the Protestant missions, representing 64 boards. He says:

In China to-day there is not a church which has not a medical practitioner or a hospital attached to it, while more important churches even maintain a medical school. Some of such practitioners and institutions are out of date, but most of those hospitals and schools which have lately been instituted are modern in every respect, being equipped with well-trained physicians and instruments of the latest type. Foremost of such well-equipped institutions stands the Union Medical College or the Lockhart Medical College at Peking, which maintains a hospital known as the Peking Hospital. This college is identified with four Protestant missions of England and the United States. The Peking Hospital was inaugurated in the spring of 1907. The cost of the buildings and material equipment alone is estimated at $150,000. Its grounds are extensive enough to permit of the addition of more buildings as the institution grows larger. All the buildings are supplied with steam heat and electric light. Besides numerous class-rooms, there are spacious lecture halls. Every student is furnished with a microscope for his exclusive use. At present there is no class higher than the third year, or junior class. The expenses of the school and hospital as well as those of the students are defrayed by the four mission boards. The students are enlisted from among the graduates of middle schools and colleges under the auspices of various missions. Although they invariably understand English, lectures are given in Chinese, as the foreign instructors are well versed in the native language. I was told by several students that it was far easier for them to learn their lessons when lectures are delivered in their own language than when they are given in any foreign tongue. As the student is required to pay only 100 taels (about $55) for tuition, board, and the use of instruments, the mission boards have to render him a considerable financial assistance. When the institution was inaugurated, the late Empress Dowager donated 100,000 taels. Besides this, various departments of the government have also contributed small sums from time to time. To meet its growing expenses the institution requested the Chinese Government to grant an annual subsidy, but the government has so far come to no decision about the matter. The rooms in the hospital are divided into three classes. The rates for the rooms are 4 to 6 Mexican dollars per day first-class, 3 Mexican dollars second-class, and 30 sen third-class. The third-class rooms are for those who need charity, but in addition to these there are rooms provided to receive patients absolutely free of charge. The hospital has twenty foreign physicians, who are also instructors in the college.

According to this writer the entire force of medical missionaries of the various Protestant missions numbers no less than 300, while the number of Chinese physicians trained by these missionaries is estimated at 5,000. There are some 250 mission hospitals throughout the country, and the yearly total of patients received by these hospitals is said to be 2,000,000. One of the most commendable features of the medical mission in China is a spirit of co-operation existing among the different schools and hospitals.

Besides maintaining hospitals and schools the missionaries in China are disseminating medical knowledge among the native students by the publication of books translated from Western languages. They also publish a monthly magazine called the *China Medical Journal,* boasting of twenty-two years of existence. A committee of specialists has been at work with a view to selecting the most appropriate Chinese words for technical terms in medical science. Its labors have resulted in the compilation of a medical dictionary containing some 15,000 words. While some translations are made from antiquated books, these are gradually being replaced by translations from the latest publications in England and America.

REMINGTON, INTERPRETER OF THE WEST

THE often-expressed wish of the late Frederic Remington that when he died some one would carve on his tombstone: "He knew the horse," finds realization in the many tributes to the artist and his work which have appeared since his death. He, moreover, knew the Indian and the cowboy. Thousands of Americans, it is suggested, to whom Indians and cowboys are thoroughly familiar types, owe their acquaintance with them altogether to Remington's drawings and paintings. So distinctively American was his work and life that his death at the age of forty-eight is regarded as more or less of a national loss.

Among the tributes to his memory and accomplishments two particularly noteworthy ones are found in recent issues of *Harper's Weekly* and *Collier's,* to both of which periodicals the artist contributed most of the best work of his later years. In a signed appreciation in *Collier's,* Owen Wister, who knew Remington and also knows the Western life he depicted, says of the artist's work:

He has made us see at every stage his inferior race [the Indian] which our conquering race has dispossessed, beginning with its primeval grandeur, and ending with its squalid degeneration under the influence of our civilized manners. Next, while recording the red man in this way, Remington has recorded the white man who encountered him,—recorded this man also in every stage from dignity to sordid squalor. Pioneers, trappers, cowboys, miners, prospectors, gamblers, bandits,—the whole motley rout goes ineffaceably into Remington's pages. And, finally, he has not forgotten Nature herself. The mystery of the untouched plains and the awe of the unscaled mountain heights have been set down by him not only truthfully, but with potent feeling and imagination. Remington is not merely an artist; he is a national treasure. And if ever it should occur to the not always discerning minds of academic institutions that Remington should be crowned at their hands, I should like to hear him receive his degree in these words: "Frederic Remington, Draftsman, Historian, Poet."

Speaking of his paintings of Indian and army life, Maj.-Gen. Leonard Wood, in the same issue of *Collier's,* says:

How true Remington's portrayal of all this is can only be appreciated by those who, like him, have lived the life of the plains, seen the wonderful lights and shadows, existed in the marvelous plains atmosphere, seen the mountains and canyons of that country, and known its people under the excitement of the strenuous life of the border, hunted and camped with the Indians and cowboys, marched with troops under the varying conditions of peace and Indian war. . . . Remington! The name fills our vision with a great sweep of Western country, troops in action, Indians, plainsmen,—all with the strong passions of life stamped on their faces pass in review, responsive to the magic of the master's name.

Photograph by Davis & Eickemeyer, N. Y

THE LATE FREDERIC REMINGTON

(October 4, 1861—December 26, 1909)

Mr. Charles de Kay, the art critic, writes in *Harper's Weekly* about Remington as artist in pencil and color:

Essentially an illustrator at first, Remington rapidly developed into one of the leading artists of Indian genre, but he was not content, as many of his forerunners had to be, with one or two hasty trips to the West to accumulate sketches on which to base many years of work in the studio. By his time communications had become so well established that an annual visit to his artistic hunting-ground was possible; and he availed himself of the advantage very often. In his case there were the memories of years passed as miner and cowboy and hunter in the West during his early life to draw upon, but he was always refreshing his impressions and seeking new material to set against the background of the actual landscape. And all this was done with the zest that comes with delight felt in the work in hand and a physical

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THE PIONEERS

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A FIGHT FOR THE WATER HOLE

well-being that made ordinary hardships a pleasure.

Of his own development and achievements the artist always spoke with great modesty. Several years ago he declared:

I knew the railroad was coming,—I saw men already swarming into the land. I knew the derby hat, the smoking chimneys, the cord-binder, and the thirty-day note were upon us in a resistless surge. I knew the wild riders and the vacant land were about to vanish forever. . . . I saw the living, breathing end of three American centuries of smoke and dust and sweat, and I now see quite another thing where it all took place, but it does not appeal to me.

Ex-President Roosevelt always considered the work of Frederic Remington a national asset. "We owe him," said Mr. Roosevelt, "a debt of gratitude."

He has been granted the very unusual gift of excelling in two entirely distinct types of artistic work; for his bronzes are as noteworthy as his pictures. He is, of course, one of the most typical American artists we have ever had, and he has portrayed a most characteristic and yet vanishing type of American life. The soldier, the cowboy and rancher, the Indian, the horses, and the cattle of the plains will live in his pictures and bronzes, I verily believe, for all time. Nor must we forget the excellent literary work he has done in such pieces as "Masi's Crooked Trail," with its peculiar insight into the character of the wildest Indians. It is no small thing for the nation that such an artist and man of letters should arise to make permanent record of certain of the most interesting features of our national life.

THE USE AND ABUSE OF IMAGINATION IN HISTORY

OF the various bodies that are classified in the annuals under the heading "Learned Societies," few are doing more useful work than the American Historical Association, which was founded in 1884. It had its origin in "the insight, the hope, and the practical imagination of a small number of teachers and writers of history, especially Herbert B. Adams, the founder; Charles Kendall Adams, Charles Dean, Moses Coit Tyler, and Justin Winsor. . . . They banded the scholars of the country together; they set in their own works a high example of patient, thorough scholarship; and they possessed that understanding of human character which is the beginning of historical writing. Out of that group of scholars three of the survivors deserve from us all a special gratitude which they have never claimed, —J. Franklin Jameson, Clarence W. Bowen, and Andrew D. White." This well-deserved tribute occurs in the annual address delivered at New York on December 28, 1909, by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, the president of the association, and printed in the *American Historical Review* for January. The address itself, on the imaginative faculty in the historian, is full of common sense, and is interesting to boot. Premising that, according to educators and employers, "the pressing danger to the republic is inaccuracy," Professor Hart naïvely remarks:

We know that the daily press has little regard for truth, because every evening paper is constantly convicting every morning rival of falsehood. Public speakers make up their anecdotes and distil wrong deductions into the minds of their hearers; the records of Congress are full of speeches that were never spoken, and omit much of the raciness of debate.

History nowadays is placed on the defensive, and Professor Hart seeks in his address

PROFESSOR ALBERT BUSHNELL HART

to "discover the causes of this alarming state of things." The causes are by no means peculiar to modern American historians, he tells us; for Horace Walpole a hundred and fifty years ago complained of "the incompetence of the generality of historians." "Truth," he says, "is left out of the discussion." Edward Augustus Freeman denounced Froude's inaccuracy in the following terms: "If history means truth, if it means fairness, if it means faithfully reporting what contemporary sources record, and drawing reasonable inferences from their statements, then Mr. Froude is no historian." A certain eminent Bostonian who "had a habit of writing tales that sounded exactly like history, and history that was chiefly fiction," being remonstrated with for making unhistorical statements, "replied that those things were history to him, and doubtless would be to his readers."

Professor Hart is of the opinion that "the trouble with many historians is that corroder of exactness,—imagination," and he asks: "Is there any way to make history true except to relieve it of all imagination?" Obviously reform must begin at the sources. The Middle Ages enjoyed "fabricating the ancients"; the seventeenth century produced many works of the imagination, for example, the "Eikon Basilike," which was foisted upon the world as the work of Charles I., by Bishop Gauden, "a very comely person and a man of vast parts." Other "imaginary" works cited by Professor Hart were:

> The "Historical and Geographical Description of Formosa," by George Psalmanazar, which assigned to the region such wonders as tame rhinoceroses and sea-horses.
>
> In the nineteenth century the spurious letters manufactured by the French artist in vellum, Lucas, among which were autograph communications from Shakespeare, Plato, Lazarus to Peter, Judas Iscariot to Mary Magdalene, and Strabo to Juvenal,—the latter being ninety-two years Strabo's junior!
>
> In America the Reverend Mr. Peters' "Blue Laws of Connecticut" have been shown to be "a mixture of misquoted statutes and downright lies." The so-called "Letters of Montcalm," circulated in London in 1775, were proved to be the work of an Englishman, set afloat by a vagabond named Robaud. The "Travels" of Jonathan Carver, unquestioned for more than a century, were proved by Edward G. Bourne to be made up of scissorings from Charlevoix and La Hontan. In Buell's recent "John Paul Jones" the biographer provides his hero with what he considers a proper background,—a family and an estate. The paragraph reads thus: "Old William Jones had died in 1760, and . . . had made John Paul residuary legatee, provided that John Paul would assume . . . the patronymic of Jones." Every word of this statement is "imaginary, except the names of William Jones and John Paul Jones." Again, Jones is made to say in 1776, "Some 900 guineas remain in balance in my favor in the Bank of North America." The bank in question was not organized till 1781!

What is needed, says Professor Hart, is "a genuinely scientific school of history, which shall remorselessly examine the sources and separate the wheat from the chaff."

But while what may be termed the abuse of imagination is to be deprecated, on the other hand, there is no reason why history should be dull. Professor Hart cites a passage from the eminent historian Bishop Stubbs, which fills twenty-six lines of the *American Historical Review*, and which he thinks "would not arouse a poet to an ode, nor a nation to revolution." The passage is without a single period, save the one at the end. A little imagination "helps one to sympathize with the great men of the past." Some of the most wonderful works of the human mind "have been novels which have put historical fact through the crucible of the imagination of genius: "The Scarlet Letter," "Quentin Durward," "Henry Esmond," are not only works but contributions to history.

As "the most striking example of the imaginative historian," Professor Hart quotes Macaulay:

> The scientific historians find him unreal; the dull writers think him meretricious; but one thing is certain,—you may get history from Gardiner or Stubbs or George Bancroft, but in reading Macaulay you get Macaulay. . . . The arousing style, the prodigality of knowledge, the real interest in, acquaintance with, and love for historical characters (though he may have misjudged them, as we misjudge our acquaintances), combine to put Macaulay in the front rank of the world's historians.

The insight of Francis Parkman, whom "almost all critics acknowledge as the first of American historians," is due "chiefly to his power to see the drama in human life." Gibbon "combines more of the qualities of a great historian than any other one man." Whatever he is writing, he is always describing a triumph.

The conclusion of the whole matter is that there are two kinds of imagination: "one which invents detail," the other, "which makes the reader see, as the historian sees, the real characters of men." There is no great history "without imagination any more than there is painting or scientific discovery."

THE CECIL RHODES SCHOLARS AND INTERNATIONAL CONCILIATION

"PRO patria per orbis concordiam" is the motto adopted by the Association for the Promotion of International Conciliation. The American executive committee, with the view of arousing the interest of the American people in the progress of the movement for promoting international peace and relations of comity and good-fellowship between nations, prints and distributes documents concerning international matters, the latest of such publications being entitled "Cecil Rhodes and His Scholars as Factors in International Conciliation." Mr. F. J. Wylie, the author of this forceful little pamphlet, reminds his readers that Rhodes was not more than twenty-four years old when he attempted to formulate the ideas which should govern his life. Among these ideas were: "Service of my country," "betterment of the human race," "the end of all wars." And in Rhodes' first will, made about this time, the same note is struck. One meets with such phrases as "restoration of Anglo-Saxon unity," "the foundation of so great a power as to hereafter render wars impossible and promote the best interests of humanity." As is well known, Mr. Rhodes left the bulk of his property to trustees, directing them to establish at the University of Oxford scholarships, tenable for three years, to which should be eligible: (1) Colonists from different portions of the British Empire; (2) students from the United States; (3) Germans.

Colonists are to be brought to Oxford "for instilling into their minds the advantage to the Colonies as well as to the United Kingdom of the retention of the unity of the Empire." Americans are to be included in the scheme, in order to encourage and foster an appreciation of the advantages which I implicitly believe will result from the union of the English-speaking peoples throughout the world, and to encourage in the students of the United States of North America who will benefit from the scholarships . . . an attachment to the country from which they have sprung, but without, I hope, withdrawing them or their sympathies from the land of their adoption or birth." And, finally, fifteen scholarships are assigned, by codicil, to Germany, because "an understanding between the three great powers will render war impossible, and educational relations make the strongest ties."

In the light of the recent Anglo-German "excitement," the last clause has a special significance to-day.

CECIL RHODES

How, it may be asked, did Mr. Rhodes hope to produce through his scholars the results at which he aimed? Replying to this question, Mr. Wylie says in substance:

That is all part of the idealism of the man, part of his gorgeous optimism. Dreamer in a sense he was: for he possessed in rare abundance the imaginative stuff of which poets, discoverers, philosophers are made. But behind the dreaming, or within it, moved the force that turns men's dreaming into action. It is the barest truth to say that Cecil Rhodes was at once imaginative and practical.

In the hasty judgment of the world, Mr. Rhodes' name stood for cynicism, perhaps for materialism. But those who knew the real man protested against this misjudgment; and history is already indorsing the judgment of his friends. Cynicism would not have suggested to him that in bringing together in Oxford year after year some 200 young men that they might associate with each other and with others of their kind, and be brought within the reach of certain influences and traditions, he was putting his hand to a work which should contribute to the peace and happiness of the world. Yet this is what Cecil Rhodes believed.

Turning to the scholars themselves, Mr. Wylie holds that none are "so obvious as they to preach the gospel of international conciliation." Cecil Rhodes believed that in the long run "it is ignorance alone that

divides; that knowledge undermines race prejudice and weakens the hatred of nations." And it is of mutual knowledge that a Rhodes scholarship is the almost unique opportunity.

It gives a man, at an important moment of his life, three years of contact with new institutions, new types of character, new ways of looking at things. It gives him, quite apart from the time he spends at Oxford, opportunities of learning something of the literature and the life of European peoples; or perhaps, not to be immodest in our pretensions, we had better say, of some one European people. It gives him, indeed, more than that. For it is the opportunity at once of travel and of something more. Travel is much in education, but not the whole. And certainly from the point of view of the sympathetic understanding of our neighbors, the knowledge which travel gives is at the best incomplete. Illuminating it may be, but its light is still upon the surface. We need to supplement it with something more intimate and penetrating; something which only friendship can give. Travel widens the outlook, and brushes away the insularity that blurs the vision of so many, even of those whose homes are not in islands; but its work is preparatory and cathartic; and when prejudices are cleared away it still remains for insight and understanding to come in and occupy their place. But the surest way to insight, perhaps even the only sure way, is through friendships. And a Rhodes scholar who spends three years in the rare intimacy which Oxford College life encourages can hardly fail to form just such friendships,—friendships that count because they open the way to understanding.

It will indeed be strangely disappointing if a Rhodes scholarship does not make at least for sanity of judgment and breadth of sympathy.

It is sometimes said that there is a risk of "denationalizing" a college boy by sending him to Europe for three years; but, surely, the risk is so small that it may be disregarded. It may be, as Mr. Wylie remarks, an argument "against sending to Oxford a man who has no experience of college life at home; but if men are selected for the scholarships who have already found their manhood in their own country, the experience they gain elsewhere, so far from disturbing them, should only fit them the better for efficient membership of the society within which their life's work lies."

What has been said above has had to do mainly with what the Rhodes scholar may receive from his scholarship. There is another aspect of the case. The scholar gives as well as gets. Mr. Wylie thinks that all who know the younger Oxford of to-day would agree, "both that it has become in these recent years more catholic in its sympathies and broader in its outlook, and that the contribution of the Rhodes scholars to that result has been material, if unobtrusive." Having regard to the actual conditions under which the scholarships are held, there is every ground for hoping that those who may have enjoyed them will be among the men whose lives are found to have done something for the advancement of the cause of justice and peace in the world, that the Cecil Rhodes Foundation ought to be found, and will be found, among the forces making for international conciliation.

SCHILLER AND THE GERMANY OF TO-DAY

ONCE more the Germans have paid homage to their great poet, whose influence at one time deemed a waning force, appears at least as potent to-day over his countrymen as ever. A recent number of the Berlin *Gegenwart* devotes a number of articles to the consideration of Schiller,—on the occasion of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of his birth (Nov. 10). Among these is one by Professor Karl Berger, who discusses in a tone of lofty appreciation, befitting his subject, what Schiller means to the Germans of the present.

For the third time,—thus he begins,—in the course of half a century the German people have paid grateful tribute to Schiller's genius; but animated each time by very different feelings and aspirations.

The celebrations of 1859 and 1905,—the one hundredth anniversaries of the poet's birth and death,—had this in common, however, that they were the natural outburst of a deep spiritual agitation, which, though so varied in the two cases, bore witness to the crowning points of Schiller's influence. The first commemoration, born of the long-restrained longing for national unity and political freedom, broke forth with elemental force; it did honor to the founder of the idea of the fatherland: "Contemptible is the nation that does not cheerfully stake its all upon its honor." "We want to be a single nation of brothers." Schiller's name was a watchword and symbol; in him the varied streams of the popular heart united; in him the outwardly disjointed were linked in spirit by the proud consciousness of a common heritage, and the hope which it engendered that under the lead of the universally revered poet the nation, split into fragments, would become a united people politically as well as racially.

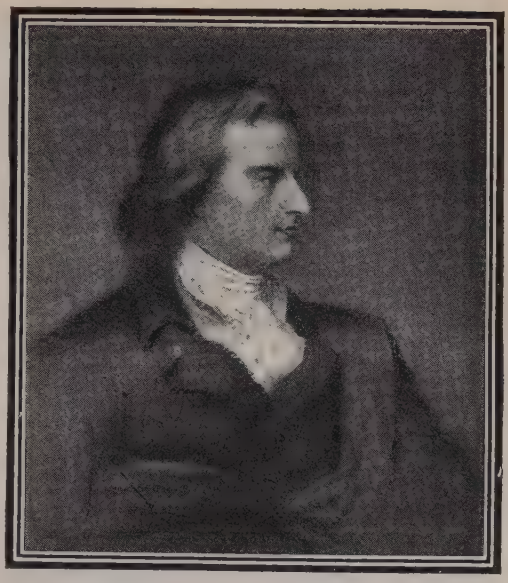
Totally different, we are reminded, were the impelling causes of the celebration of May, 1905. The commemoration of Schiller's death was really a resurrection,—"he whom the literary sextons had already consigned to 'historic' oblivion, was joyfully acclaimed; his significance revived, with added force."

In those spring days what had silently long been developing became evident to all the world: that he who had always so nobly stood the test in his struggles with a dull world once more emerged victorious in these last conflicts. The fruits of decades of investigation, thanks to which Schiller's image was freed from the rubbish of formal tradition and senseless prejudice, were brought home to the people in a flash. More forcefully and profoundly did the celebration of 1905 penetrate into Schiller's spirit than the political one of 1859. The unity of his work, his views and conduct of life were revealed to the people; it was shown how his personality and his creations could even to-day,—yea, precisely to-day,—be a living power, an inspiration to life and deeds, bearing counsel, solace, and joy. Once more he stood out as the poet of the whole nation; not as a political leader but as the embodiment of what is best in the German genius; high priest of a pure, lofty art; the emancipator from the pettiness of the commonplace; pointing onward to the spiritual union of the people. So powerful was the impression produced by this new view of the poet that the May celebration shone forth as a "triumphal festival of idealism."

Germans still feel the after effects of that festival.

And if now, on the one hundred and fiftieth jubilee of Schiller's birth, the waves do not mount as high, it should not be regarded as a sign of waning enthusiasm. One and the same generation cannot commemorate an event for the second time with equal impressiveness. Four years ago the point was to expiate a wrong; to-day no triumphal fête summons to demonstrations of tumultuous joy; with peaceful pleasure, in the proud consciousness of conquered possession, we can quietly turn our thoughts upon the lofty poet and gratefully recall what he is and may be to the people of the twentieth century.

THE HOUSE IN WHICH SCHILLER WAS BORN AT MARBACH



SCHILLER IN HIS PRIME

(From the painting by Gerhardt von Kügelgen, now in the Goethe Museum at Frankfort-on-the-Main)

Most of us, continues this writer, gained a true insight into Schiller's spirit through that great festival, "a perfect reverence for the potency of his idealism." The older generation still living, "only after having passed through the hard school of reality," can look back "with contentment upon a period of naturalism."

Their souls now long to reach greater heights. There arises among these thoughtful Germans a craving for an art on the grand old style, combining poetical elevation with truth to nature. We have grown tired of dry realism. We long to again see on the stage, in place of the usual empty characterization of characters, men and women of real human action, instead of the stuffy little rooms and petty miseries to which we have grown so accustomed, wide horizons and great presentations. It is in helping us to these moods that the author of "Wallenstein" and of "Tell" has a revived significance and an influence steadily increasing upon the creative efforts of his countrymen.

On the stage Schiller maintains his "indestructible vitality and effectiveness." In poetry and art,—according to Goethe's well-known saying,—personality is everything, and the German people have grown the more appreciative of Schiller's art since they have come to recognize it as the expression of a heroic idealism.

His educative influence has not waned in the slightest; nay, it will grow with a growing desire to cultivate the national genius. In the search for new religious ideals, too, Schiller may be of essential service,—he without a hope of the hereafter, fearlessly faced the terrors of this life, and joyously and freely encountered them with his lofty nature. We must remember, too, his message on the essence and meaning of esthetic culture,—a message as new and important as when it was issued. What Schiller proclaimed he lived; his life was a model, his character permeated with the regenerative force of an artistic spirit. As against the stunting influence of modern life, which creates the one-sided specialist in a thousand shapes, Schiller places as an ideal counterpart the rounded, complete man who unites pleasure and work,—not by any means substituting a world of beauty and its enjoyment in place of hard, real labor, but earnestly, with perfect devotion to duty, maintaining the integrity of the living soul. Such exhortations fit every age, but answer most especially a craving of our time. A royal road Schiller has not, indeed, indicated to us: only to him who does not shun a laborious elevation of his inner self can he interpret the meaning of our complex existence.

A NAVY FOR OUR CANADIAN NEIGHBOR

HON. LOUIS P. BRODEUR, CANADIAN MINISTER OF MARINE AND FISHERIES

THE name Canada is a synonym for prosperity. Everything in the land of British North America is stamped with the trademark of progress. It is true that development has come later to the Dominion than to the great republic south of it; but that this development has "arrived" no traveler through the Provinces can fail to see. But perhaps the most significant testimony to the prosperity of our Northern neighbor is afforded by its decision that the cost of defending her coasts shall no longer fall upon the mother-country; that with so much wealth within her borders the duty of protecting it is logically her own; that whereas during her infant growth she was willing to accept the protection of her parent across the seas, now that she is able to do so she gladly relieves the old country of the burden, and that the time has come for the Canadian nation to have a Canadian navy, with Canadian *Dreadnoughts* built in Canadian shipyards and officered and manned by Canadians.

The establishment of the new navy is to be provided for during the present session of the Dominion Parliament. The merchant marine of Canada ranks fourth among the nations: it is absolutely dependent upon the British navy for protection; and it has long been a matter of reproach that the Dominion has never contributed anything for the support of that navy. In early times when the Canadian Pacific Railway and the intercolonial system of canals were regarded as essential to the consolidation of the Dominion and the maintenance of the integrity of British North America as a part of the Empire, writes Mr. Watson Griffin in the *North American Review*, "the British people bore the burden of the Imperial navy without grumbling, and Canadian self-respect was satisfied by the argument that, in building a transcontinental railway, available for the rapid transportation of British soldiers and sailors from the Atlantic to the Pacific, Canada was contributing more to the strength of the Empire than it could do by expending the same amount of money on warships." This excuse is no longer available; for, although new transcontinental railways are nearing completion they are necessary neither for the transportation of Imperial troops nor for the maintenance of Canadian integrity.

According to Mr. Griffin, it was the An-

glo-German scare that aroused public sentiment in Canada to demand that the Dominion Parliament arrange for Canadian participation in Imperial defense; and the terms of the resolution, which was unanimously passed by the Canadian House of Commons, leaves no doubt as to the temper of the Canadian House of Commons in the matter. Two of the paragraphs read:

The House will cordially approve of any necessary expenditure designed to promote the speedy organization of a Canadian naval service in co-operation with and in close relation to the Imperial navy, along the lines suggested at the last Imperial conference, and in full sympathy with the view that the naval supremacy of Britain is essential to the security of commerce, the safety of the Empire, and the peace of the world.

The House expresses its firm conviction that whenever the need arises the Canadian people will be found ready and willing to make any sacrifice that is required to give to the Imperial authorities the most loyal and hearty co-operation in every movement for the maintenance of the honor of the Empire.

But while these are the views of the Liberal and Conservative leaders in the Dominion Parliament it appears that among the people themselves there is considerable difference of opinion. The French-Canadians, who number nearly two-thirds of the entire population, are loyal to the British Empire, but they are also very jealous for Canadian autonomy, and are "apt to be suspicious of proposals for Canadian participation in Imperial defense, fearing that Canada may be dragged into unnecessary and unjustifiable wars." Among the opinions expressed by the opponents of the new navy have been the following:

Canada does not need naval protection, and cannot afford the luxury.

"What the West wants is box-cars and not battleships."

The Anglo-German war scare is "all wind and newspaper talk."

The labor organizations of the Dominion are opposed to the expenditure of public money for naval purposes.

There can be no danger of war with the United States, and the Americans will never permit any other nation to invade Canada, because such an invasion would be a violation of the Monroe Doctrine.

England does not need our aid. If she ever does we will spend our last cent and shed the last drop of blood in our veins in her defense.

On the other hand, the English-speaking Conservatives in Canada deprecate the idea "of expecting American taxpayers to pay for the cost of protecting Canada against foreign aggression," though they are divided in opinion as to the way in which Canadian money should be expended for purposes of defense. The Conservative leader is in favor of a Canadian-built navy, but many of his followers consider that an annual money payment to the British Government would be preferable. Admiral Lord Charles Beresford and Lord Milner have expressed the view that a Canadian navy would be more satisfactory than a money payment; and that high naval authority, Admiral Sir John C. R. Colomb, called attention some years ago to the desirability of establishing shipyards and arsenals in Canada as well as in Australia, pointing out the indefensible conditions under which "every ship, however small; almost every appliance, however insignificant; every gun, rifle, or revolver, every pound of powder, and every shot required for naval purposes at the other side of the world, must be produced at home, and pass over half the circumference of the globe to their destination."

Mr. Griffin thinks it "altogether unlikely that Sir Wilfrid Laurier will abandon a policy indorsed by both parties in the Canadian Parliament and approved by the British Government at the Colonial conference, but that the objections of his own followers and the difference of opinion among the Conservatives may cause him to favor such a modest expenditure that the Canadian navy will not in the near future add materially to the strength of the Empire."

As to the building of the battleships in Canada, Mr. Griffin says that the safety of Canada lies "in immediately making the Imperial navy so strong as to insure peace."

Before warships can be built in Canada, shipyards must be got ready. Meanwhile the Germans are building *Dreadnoughts*, and it is feared that in 1912 they may have more of those great ships than the British. . . . If the British shipyards are not being worked to their full capacity it is the duty of Canada in this emergency to make up for past neglect by ordering two or three *Dreadnoughts* in England while the Canadian shipyards are being got ready for operation. Canada should pay not only the cost of building these *Dreadnoughts* in England but also the full cost of maintaining them, asking the British Government to supply officers and men until Canadians can be trained for the service.

And he adds: "There is little doubt that if Britain were actually at war with the populous, wealthy, and well-organized German Empire or any other great power, the whole Canadian people, regardless of origin and language, would support the British cause."

EUSAPIA PALADINO: AN UNSOLVED MYSTERY

THE designation "mystery" seems to be, taking everything connected with the Paladino into consideration, the only suitable one to apply to the remarkable medium now visiting the United States. That an Italian peasant-girl taken, according to her own account, from her duties as kitchen-maid to assist at a spiritualistic séance held in the house of her employer, should give evidence of the possession of powers so extraordinary that forthwith she is launched on the career of a medium; that at fifty-four, after having "puzzled the world since she was fourteen," so far from being denounced as a fakir or a fraud, she is able to count among her adherents some of the most eminent men of science in the world and is willing to submit herself to the criticism of another hemisphere,—all this justifies the assertion that in Eusapia Paladino the year nineteen hundred and ten has at least one unsolved mystery. In the February *Cosmopolitan* the Signora tells the story of her life for the first time.

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EUSAPIA PALADINO

(As she appeared in New York in December last)

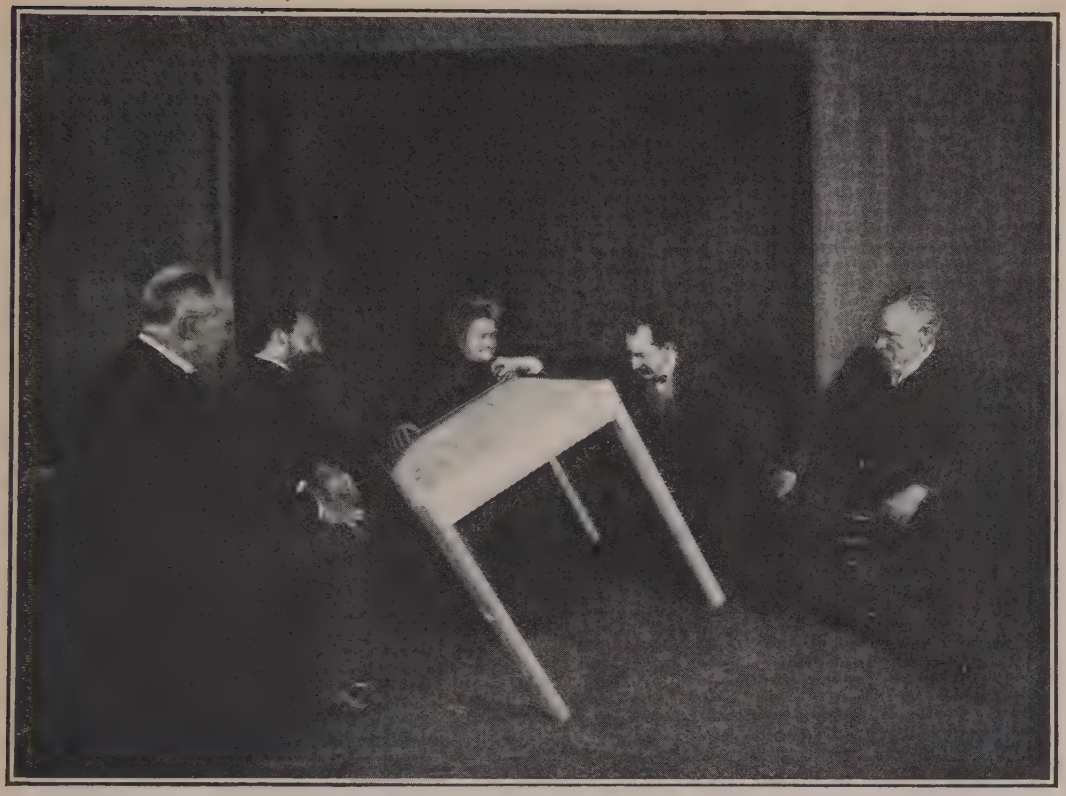
Her mother dying soon after Eusapia's birth, and the child having no female relatives, the father placed the infant with a family near her native village of La Pouille. When about a year old she had a bad fall, about which she remarks:

> A dent was made in my head, and over this dent the hair has always been white. People have told me that when I am in the trance-sleep a current of air comes from the dent, that the air is cold, and that it has a connection with the things that happen during the séances. It may be so; I do not know.

She seems to have had a hard life as a child. Her father was killed by brigands when she was less than ten; and the family with whom she had been placed becoming indifferent to her, she entered the household of a childless couple who wished to adopt her.

Eusapia ran away from this couple, made her way to Naples, was taken in by a family in that city, who told her she could stay with them if she "worked hard enough." Learning that she was to be put in a convent, she determined to run away again, when an event occurred which was to determine the whole course of her future life. This was her début as a medium, which she describes thus:

> In the front rooms of the house there was company. I heard much talk and laughter as I cleaned the pans. . . . Suddenly my name was called,—"Eusapia! Eusapia!" I went to the door of the brightly lighted room, thinking that they wanted me to bring them something. "Wash your hands, take off your apron, brush your hair, and come in here," they commanded. I obeyed them in wonder.
>
> They were sitting round a small table. Their hands were on it, with their fingers touching. Two of them moved aside for me, and I was told to do as they were doing. "She is a strange girl," said my mistress to a gentleman. "Perhaps she can help us. We will see." The lamps were turned down, and we sat in silence. . . . I began to have a half-dizzy feeling, a swimming of the head. My arms and body seemed to stiffen and shake, as if from a bursting force pushing for release. It was almost pain at first. But relief came. I breathed



PALADINO "LEVITATING" A TABLE

(A photograph taken without warning shows, according to Professor Leuba, the medium lifting the table by natural, muscular means)

easily again, and looked up at the others, who had risen and were speaking eagerly. The gentleman was saying, "It is amazing; it is a miracle."

I was as astonished as they. I could not believe that I, Eusapia, the dish-washer, had done things that the clever gentleman called miracles. They told me about these things. They said that the four legs of the table had risen from the floor at once, that some books, untouched by anybody, had moved about, that a decanter of wine on a side-table had risen in the air.

Eusapia was now relieved of her kitchen work, and had simply to sit with her mistress and be looked at by the curious; but she relates that she was not enamored of her new-found notoriety, and was anxious to become a laundress.

Speaking of her manifestations, she says that the "results are best when I have sympathy. . . . I am an instrument, to be played upon like a piano. She explains certain conditions at her séances, to which objection has been made, as follows:

I have been asked why I always request the cabinet. This is because I am accustomed to it. . . . In the first days I knew nothing of cabinets, but they were provided, and now, from habit, I have come to expect them at my séances. I have been asked, too, why I prefer darkness to light. My answer is much the same. In the beginning, when they wanted to get good results they turned down the lamps, . . . and now I have grown to want the darkness. . . . I have been asked many times for my own explanation, but I have none. I know only that I can feel the force; that it seems to flow out of me; and that I obtain it in part from others. . . . Perhaps some day we will know all about this force. Only God and His people know now, and, perhaps,—the devil.

Of the many attacks that have been made on Eusapia Paladino's *bona fides* one of the most trenchant appears in the January issue of *Putnam's,* from the pen of Prof. James H. Leuba, head of the Psychological Laboratory at Bryn Mawr College. In 1905, he tells us, two French physicians, Dr. Jules Courtier and Dr. Yourievitch, backed by the Institut Général Psychologique, resolved to undertake a thorough investigation of this medium. They were aided by the late Professor Curie, D'Arsonval the physicist, and Prof. H. Bergson of the Col-

lège de France. Professor Leuba rests his case on the report of this committee, whose investigation is "admitted to be the most protracted, careful, and exact that has yet been carried out." We condense some of the more interesting passages of Professor Leuba's article:

Eusapia usually sat at the head of a table weighing about fifteen pounds. The observers placed themselves around the table, the one at her right controlling her right side, and the one at her left her left side. They were to keep in contact with her, hand with hand, foot with foot, and whenever possible, knee against knee. Behind her there was a closet, or cabinet, closed in front with a curtain. To the left of the cabinet stood a three-legged stand weighing about two pounds.

The following are instances of her most remarkable achievements. She several times caused the stand placed at the left of the cabinet, about one yard from her chair, to move not only toward her but also away from her.

Once she consented, against her wont, to let her feet be tied to the feet of her chair, and her wrists to the wrists of the controllers on each side of her. The stand was placed twenty inches away to the left of her chair. In these circumstances the stand was seen by Dr. Courtier to rise from the floor, ascend to the height of Professor Curie's shoulder, turn itself upside down in the air, and, having described a graceful curve, place itself flat on the table in front of Eusapia.

At each of four of the séances a table, having on it a weight of twenty-one pounds, in one instance was raised from the floor and remained in the air several seconds.

A photograph taken without warning shows Eusapia's left hand held against one corner of the table and four fingers of her right hand strongly pressed near the opposite side. Thus the movement of the table is found to be quite natural. . . . From that moment she refused to be photographed without warning.

Professor Leuba points out what he considers are sufficiently cogent reasons for the existence of trickery in the medium's séances; and he suggests that if Eusapia again performs before a committee of experts she should do so under one of the following conditions: "The performances to take place in full daylight; or, flashlight photographs to be taken without warning; or, a satisfactory control of hands and feet; or, disregarding the table, let the stand, clay, etc., be placed two yards or more away from the medium."

As opposed to Professor Leuba's views, it is only fair to Eusapia Paladino to remind that among those who believe her to be "possessed of some form of a supernormal power," are men accustomed to carry out investigations of the most searching nature,—scientists like Sir William Crookes, Sir Oliver Lodge, Professor Schiaparelli, Ochorowicz, Wagner, Richet, Gerosa, Ermacora.

HOW DREAMS ARE CONTROLLED

T. B. ALDRICH in his sonnet to Sleep says:

When to soft Sleep we give ourselves away,
And in a dream as in a fairy bark,
Drift on and on through the enchanted dark
To purple daybreak,—little thought we pay
To that sweet bitter world we know by day.

If, however, Dr. Georges Dumas is correct in his deductions, we in our dreams have much to do with the world of our waking hours. In the *Revue de Paris* this author has a singularly interesting paper under the heading, "How Dreams Are Governed" (*Comment on Gouverne les Rêves*). He takes his readers back to the times of the ancients, shows what careful preparations were made by those who sought revelations from the gods, in the matters of conduct, of diet, or of fasting, and describes the practice of incubation,—the act of sleeping in a temple or similar sacred place in order to receive in dreams aid or communications from the divinities. Incidentally it may be stated that incubation was practiced in Italy as late as the sixteenth century. In this connection Dr. Dumas remarks:

Although modern incubations have not the same solemnity as those of Epidaurus, the suppliants still find in the sanctuary sufficient images, odors, and pious emotions to prepare their divine dreams; and if they succeed in seeing their God it is as the faithful of Asclepios, without mystery, by the sole force of the suggestions which they impose on themselves or of the obsessions which haunt them. . . . The men that still direct their dreams or essay to do so are precisely those who attach to them a religious sense and a sort of absolute worth. The direction of dreams can be successful only if the dream appears more true than the reality.

Altogether apart from the religious aspect of the subject, Dr. Dumas discusses the question, "What is it to dream?" He says:

The sleeper is not insensible to the impressions of the senses: he perceives confusedly lights and shadows, sounds, odors, contacts, and sensations that are a part of his organic life; he retains most of the time in the course of his dreams the sentiments habitual to him, his loves

and his hates, his hopes and his fears; and he realizes the sensations of pleasure and of pain. . . . A dream is a tumultuous disorder in which the images attract for the simple reason that they resemble, or have been joined in, a past experience.

Physicians well know the serious effect that disturbing dreams have upon nervous and impressionable natures. Grave disorders have not infrequently resulted from repeated nightmares. In 1897 Dr. Sante de Santis, of Rome, reported several cases of madness attributable to this cause; and, shortly after, Dr. Leonard Corning, of New York, assigned to a similar origin certain cases of melancholia and hysteria. To control the dreams of such subjects would be to bring them peace, equilibrium, and health; and it was with the hope of achieving such an end that Dr. Corning undertook the interesting experiments the details of which he contributed to the *Medical Record* of January 21, 1899. Even before Corning, "a very simple means to act upon, if not to direct, dreams had been employed. Alfred Maury (as he relates in his *Le Sommeil et les Rêves*), while asleep, inhaled eau de Cologne, administered by an assistant; forthwith he dreamed that he was at the hairdresser's." Corning employed external sensations to provoke dreams; and, "desiring to act on the profound dispositions of his subjects, he made use of musical sensations capable of producing agreeable emotions." He employed the cromatoscope also. Under the double influence of music and pleasing images nightly hallucinations of a disagreeable nature became transformed into pleasant dreams. After several séances long-standing nervous troubles disappeared. The following noteworthy case is cited:

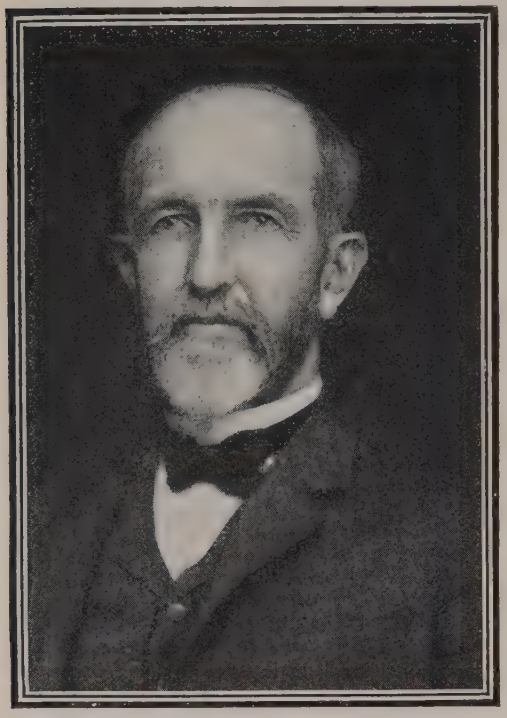
L. was neither intemperate nor a glutton. He had a good digestion and ate heartily, but for twenty years had been troubled each night with horrible dreams, of which he retained harrowing recollections. Superstitious by nature and sensitive to all the dissonances of life, he came at last to see sinister presages in all his visions. Treated for the first time with music and chromatoscopic images, he was some while in falling asleep, due doubtless to the novelty of the experience. Gradually his respiration became deeper and slower, his eyelids fell, and he slept. . . . Questioned the next morning, he stated that he had dreamed more, perhaps, than on preceding nights, but that in place of the horrible carnivals formerly his nightly lot, he had had dreams of the most agreeable nature. The treatment being continued, he experienced delightful dreams without the aid of either music or chromatoscope.

Corning was, of course, engaged in treating invalids. His desire was to cure, and nothing further. He had not for a moment thought of the possibility of a healthy person directing his dreams. At the end of the nineteenth century Hervey de Saint-Denis investigated the subject, and after long observations claimed to be able to modify the course of his dreams by the simple effort of his will, just as easily as he in his waking hours could change the direction of his steps or the subject of a conversation. He happily utilized the well-known laws of the association of ideas. If a particular sensation,—the perfume of a rose, or the sound of a piano,—could in a state of wakefulness cause one to think of the person who held the rose in the hand or who played the piano, why could not similar associations be created artificially to evoke in a sleeper the remembrance of a person or of an act? One of his experiments on these lines Hervey describes thus:

Before setting out for Vivarais, where I was to spend some weeks, I bought a certain perfume, and was careful not to open the vial before arriving at my destination. While at Vivarais I used this perfume constantly on my handkerchief. On the day of my return the vial was hermetically closed, and for some months it remained in the depths of a cupboard. At length I handed it to a servant, who was in the habit of entering my chamber very early, and directed him to sprinkle a few drops of the perfume upon my pillow some morning when I was sleeping soundly. . . . Eight or ten days passed. My dreams, recorded each morning, betrayed no reminiscence of Vivarais. (The vial in the meantime had not again been touched.) At last a night came when I believed myself returned to the district I had visited in the previous year. The mountains, studded with great chestnut-trees, stood before me; and one particular rock of basalt was so clearly defined that I could have pictured it to the smallest detail. Then on awakening I recognized the odor of the perfume with which my pillow had been moistened.

Hervey repeated his experiments with other subjects besides himself, and with other perfumes, the results being equally successful. He noted, however, that if more than seven or eight odors were used there was a certain confusion in their effects, and, further, that if used too often they lost their power. With music, and even with the sensations of his palate, Hervey obtained even more brilliant results. It seems safe to conclude with him that "by means of certain images and sensations well determined beforehand" it is possible to direct and control the visions of the night watches.

A COMMON-SENSE PLAN TO SAVE THE FORESTS OF THE NATION



HON. T. B. WALKER, OF MINNEAPOLIS
(A lumberman of experience who has a practical conservation policy of his own)

EXCELLENT as has been the work done by the Forest Service, the fact that four-fifths of the nation's forests are controlled by private owners calls for comprehensive legislation, in regard to conservation and reforesting, so that the source of the country's future supply may not be irretrievably jeopardized. Forestry is an art, a science, a business,—however one chooses to regard it,—of which the ordinary citizen knows comparatively little; it therefore behooves him to take good heed when an expert on the subject offers warnings and suggestions. In the January *Sunset* is a plea for the regulation of privately owned forests by the Hon. T. B. Walker, of whom the editor of that magazine says:

For nearly half a century Mr. Walker has been on intimate and friendly relations with forests in all their phases, and he handles a thousand-acre tract of sugar-pine trees with the same intimate knowledge that a good poultry farmer shows in dealing with a flock of laying hens. Mr. Walker went to Minnesota in 1862 and located in Minneapolis. . . . From that day to this he has been a forest man, with the result that no one is better qualified by reason of experience, observation, and education to speak on all subjects dealing with intelligent forestry.

In suggesting a plan whereby conservation and reforesting may be accomplished, Mr. Walker says:

Any practical plan must take into account the conditions which have been controlling factors in the wasting and destruction of the past. One-half of the original supply of timber has been denuded and wasted, leaving four-tenths of the original supply in private hands, and only one-tenth in the hands of the Government, mostly in the forest reserves, and mostly difficult of access. These inherited conditions, the higher-priced timber, and the low price of common lumber, free trade with Canada, scattered ownership, and the prejudice against the lumber industry,—all make a most complicated problem.

Mr. Walker maintains, however, that "conservation and reproduction can be so extensively carried on that it will supply the demands of the future to a reasonable extent, and that at prices that will not be prohibitive or very excessive." But any successful plan "must involve co-operation between the public generally, including the general government, and the timber States and counties, and the timber-land owners, or at least those engaged in the production of lumber." To quote Mr. Walker further:

Conservation can be made practicable only by handling the timber on a sufficiently large scale to warrant the heavy expenditures for a complete milling plant sufficiently large to make the production of lumber economical and conservative, and which must be supplied with an area of timber large enough to last for one cutting for forty or fifty years. This tract should contain so much more timber than will be necessary to furnish logs for the first cutting that a considerable fractional part can be left of the smaller and medium trees to equal 30 or 40 per cent. of the standing timber to be left for future growth. This, when added to the new and cultivated growth, will make, in the course of the forty or fifty years, an amount of timber for a second round of cutting equal to, or greater than, the original stock.

This will involve "an expensive and extended system of forest protection against damage by fire."

The entrance upon methods of clearing away leaves, cones, brush, and small trees; filling the hollow butts with dirt; trimming up small trees; replanting or seeding where trees are sufficiently scattered to make room for more;

also to clear out and replant or seed the open brush areas,—this means to begin the reforesting with protection and carry it on through all the present forests and continue it indefinitely as a permanent policy. Then, as the land is cut over, to make a complete clearing of the refuse and of the needles and brush as far as needed, and to enter upon an extended and complete system of timber cultivation, as well as of protection of the stock left standing by the first cutting.

Another point made by Mr. Walker is that "within the next twenty or thirty years, and probably less, successful conservation will furnish lumber of all grades at less prices than it will if not entered upon without much further delay." Such plan or method must "be made to satisfy the public, and at the same time to furnish a means whereby the lumbermen can satisfactorily practice conservation."

Congress should inaugurate a commission somewhat similar to that for interstate commerce, which should have

authority to supervise the organization of lumber companies, and the amount of capital stock and bonded securities should be subject to their approval, by means of which excessive issues or watered stocks and bonds could not prevail. It should have, through the assistance of the forestry department of the State or general government, supervision or approval of forestry methods, including protecting the timber against fire, reforesting, and conservative methods of logging and lumbering. The price of lumber might be agreed upon, and such prices maintained by agreement or by the authority of the commission, under penalties.

This may appear to some to be an unwarrantable interference with the lumber industry; but, as Mr. Walker says,

If the public can rightfully regulate the banking business as to capitalization and management, to control the rates and conditions for loaning money and receiving deposits; and can also control insurance companies and limit and prescribe the rates; if the size and quality of the loaf of bread of the baker can be determined; and in many other industries and occupations the public can intervene and protect the public interests, why not to an equal extent take measures to provide against the waste and destruction of the second most important necessity for the comfort and welfare of the people?

HOW TO IMPROVE OUR SOUTH AMERICAN TRADE

THE old adage, "There are none so blind as those who will not see," has never been more strikingly exemplified than in the attitude of the merchants of the United States toward South American trade. They have watched with satisfaction, writes Professor William R. Shepherd in the *Political Science Quarterly,* the American "invasion" of both Europe and Asia, and in proportion as the sale of their commodities has netted a fair amount of profit, they have fostered their business interests in those continents. But, favored with astounding success eastward and westward, and enjoying a huge and lucrative market at home, they have become relatively oblivious to the fact that the trade of a great region to the southward is falling a prey to the European "invader." They seem to think, "Whenever we want the trade of South America, we can easily get it." They may, however, discover too late that the market in that quarter is preempted. Professor Shepherd has made several visits to the principal countries of the southern continent, so that his observations are especially valuable as coming from one who has a close and practical acquaintance with his subject. He sets forth some of the reasons why our trade with our southern neighbors is so meager, and offers certain suggestions as to its improvement.

The chief rivals of the United States in South America are England and Germany, and the most powerful competitor to be reckoned with is the German. He takes care to acquaint himself thoroughly, in advance, with the language of the country, its customs, its needs, and its economic conditions in general.

He learns also the languages of his principal competitors in that market. . . . Tactful and complaisant as regards native sympathies and prejudices, he avoids anything that might provoke their antagonism. Rather than hold himself socially aloof, he will marry into a native family; but, although he may identify himself with the interests of the country he prudently abstains from undue participation in its politics. . . . He investigates with patient care all phases of the commercial and industrial situation which may be of service to him. . . . Then, after all the requirements of caution and deliberation are satisfied, he locates his business, or places his investment, with a degree of shrewdness that does him credit. . . . Time

was when the English were known as the nation of shopkeepers, with all the obsequious arts that distinguish the craft. Now the title seems to be passing to the Germans.

By way of contrast, Professor Shepherd points out certain traits and practices of the German's American rival, and calls attention to three false notions that check our South American trade. (1) The idea is held that "the inhabitants of South America are scarcely half civilized."

Not infrequently the American capitalist declines to invest his money in South American enterprises because he believes that it will not be protected. If we knew more about that continent and its peoples, the injustice of such an attitude of mind would be apparent enough. British and German capitalists encounter no special difficulty in securing profitable returns from their investments, and they do so without invoking the aid of warships and without conniving at revolutions. On the other hand, it is a fact too well known to need comment that the corrupt conduct of Americans in many parts of the southern continent has served to injure the good name of the United States and to awaken a corresponding distrust of us in the minds of the South Americans themselves.

(2) The second false notion is "that the American way of doing business is necessarily the best in the world."

In common with this spirit are the ideas, first, that if the South Americans want our goods they should simply send for them; and, second, that anything will do for South America. Both ideas are responsible for much of the prejudice existing on that continent against the use of our products. If orders are received from South America the American manufacturer too often ignores them or ships something not desired . . . not infrequently he is slow about filling orders and careless or indifferent about returning articles, especially parts of machinery sent to him for repair or replacement. The result of such a procedure is that no more orders will be received from the South American merchant so treated.

If, however, the American exporter *does* condescend to execute the orders he receives, the probability is that the goods will be packed in "shapes, sizes, and measures, and in weights and quantities unusual in South America. Pounds, quarts, and yards have no place in countries where the metric system prevails." Too often, also, the packing is done in the most careless fashion.

It must be remembered that, before they reach their destination, packages are liable to a great deal of knocking about in the course of transportation by ocean-going vessel, lighter, river steamboat, railway, ox-cart, beast of burden, and human carrier. Their possible exposure also to hot and moist temperatures may easily work damage both to covering and to contents. Nevertheless, huge boxes, flimsily constructed of thin boards . . . are filled with heavy merchandise and dispatched to some point in South America, only to be broken open, either accidentally or intentionally by thieving freight-handlers.

(3) The third of the false notions is "the belief that the American article is the best in the world and must commend itself spontaneously wherever it goes."

In some cases, perhaps, the belief may be well founded; but this idea of the universal superiority of American materials and American workmanship over anything of a like sort which can be furnished by Europe is fast becoming a more or less gratuitous assumption.

In the way of suggestions for the development of our South American commerce, Professor Shepherd first proposes that "we stop committing the various faults" of which we have been guilty and "profit by the examples of our European rivals." We shall be able to secure our share of the trade when "the views and methods of our business men undergo a change which will enable them to cope successfully with their rivals in general, and with the Germans in particular." There are three things we ought to do:

The first is to get a thorough first-hand acquaintance with South American conditions. The second is to make a careful examination of the examples set by our European competitors in the conviction that we shall be able to improve vastly upon these models. Our third duty is so to modify certain of our business methods as to render them thoroughly effective in South America.

Other suggestions made by Professor Shepherd are in substance as follows:

Let members of our exporting firms visit the South American countries and observe for themselves the conditions existing there.

In conjunction with what is furnished by Europe, more of our capital should be invested in South America.

American banks should be established in South American towns.

American business men should treat their South American customers with as much regard as they do those at home. Goods should be shipped in the form and sizes requested by the customer. Packers thoroughly familiar with conditions of climate and transportation should be employed.

The American exporter should keep himself thoroughly well posted on changes in the tariff system.

Liberal concessions in the periods of payments should be allowed.

Advertising in the local newspapers and magazines should be resorted to.

Competent salesmen should make personal solicitation for trade.

Above all, American merchants should have in every field of their activities in South America a complete assortment of samples.

WHY GERMANY IS THE LEADING EUROPEAN POWER

MORE than a hundred years have passed since Immanuel Kant joined the "great majority"; and one can fancy he would, to use the common phrase, turn in his grave could he but know that he was charged directly with the undoing of a country. Yet this is the accusation brought against the great philosopher by the eminent Frenchman of affairs, M. Emile Flourens, in the *International* (London). Assuming that no one who looks facts in the face can refuse to acknowledge the leading position held by Germany in Europe, M. Flourens discusses the question: "To what can this preponderance of the German race be ascribed?" He says:

If the question were put to a German he would probably ascribe the supremacy of Germany to the greater capacity of the German nation, which was superior to other races in toughness of fiber and moral strength. For myself this explanation seems hardly tenable. I do not believe that any race is intended by destiny and the privilege of birth to secure world-wide supremacy.

He believes, on the other hand, that every race has the power within itself to maintain its independence. And he holds, further, "that every race, even the most gifted, is liable to the danger of being entangled in intellectual aberrations and of falling a victim to attractive theories which destroy the moral strength of the people." He declares:

I believe that France was pulled down from her former greatness and her pre-eminence in the council of European nations because she had lost her national and religious ideals, her firm belief in her own destiny and her moral authority, and that Germany is in the act of assuming her place because she has preserved all these religious and national ideals and has rigidly upheld the authority of duty, heedless of all those doctrines of the philosophers which seek to obliterate the distinction between good and evil. . . . Because France allowed herself to be deluded by dangerous philosophers she has lost her political power. Because Germany kept herself, on the whole, free from such will-o'-the-wisps she was able to climb to a world-wide supremacy.

M. Flourens then proceeds to inquire what is the philosophical system that has destroyed the power of France; and he candidly admits that many will be astonished at his answer. He maintains that Kant's ideas took possession of France's intellectual development,—of her universities, her intermediate schools, and her elementary schools.

But it was not Kant's idea of the categorical imperative which filled men's minds in France, but Kant's doubt of the reality of the outer world, and in consequence of this opinion the negation of all positive ideals, philosophic nihilism, the destruction of the old religion which lifted men above all doubt and led them through life with unshakable belief in the doctrines taught them to the fulfillment of duty and the sacrifice of their own selfish interests to the higher interests of God, king, and country.

If, however, M. Flourens has to accuse Kant of being the corrupter of his country he disclaims any intention to doubt his philosophical greatness. It is the inferences which Kant's French pupils have drawn from his teachings which are false and dangerous. They cling to the agnostic dogma, and from it infer "that there is no objective truth, no ideal, no authority, which is just the opposite of what Kant himself taught." Meanwhile Germany devoted herself to earnest and positive work.

Though rejecting the reality of ideals, Germany maintained her patriotic and religious temperament . . . her masses remained indifferent to doubt, worked and obeyed. . . . Thus Germany became great through unity, discipline, and profound respect for her historical leaders, while France grew weaker and weaker through her antipathy to objective truth in the domain of philosophy and to divine and human authority in the domain of politics. The poison of misapprehended philosophy destroyed the strength of the people; the poison of antimilitarism killed the power of the army.

Recognizing that many will reject his method of viewing history, M. Flourens still maintains that "at the back of all the battles and wars, intrigues, and diplomatic combinations may be detected that intellectual movement which is the mainspring of historical change." In illustration of this fact he points to France in the eighteenth century. "At the end of the seventeenth century France stood at the head of European nations in every department of politics and science."

No military force could have robbed her of her pre-eminence had not that philosophical tendency, which culminated in the "Encyclopedists," impaired her national fighting powers and weakened her moral strength. . . . It was these philosophers who destroyed the authority of duty and patriotism among the leading circles of France and stripped France of her position in the world. . . . It was Voltaire, the leader of the dominant philosophers, who congratulated Louis XV. that the loss of Canada relieved him of a few useless snowheaps and the loss of India of the care of a dormant colony.

In the present century "the mischief spread more and more through France, and a universal moral ruin, this time under the guise of Kant's philosophy, seized upon the whole nation." The defeat of France by Germany in 1871 seemed to awaken in the former new passions and new ideals, but only for a moment. A few years later "people had slipped back into the old disorganization." If there is any means of salvation "it may perhaps issue out of that invincible source of national vigor which France possesses in the time-honored patriotism of her peasant population."

THE RESULT OF PRUSSIA'S ANTI-POLISH POLICY

IN a recent number the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Berlin) published an appreciation by Landrath D. von Dewitz, member of the House of Deputies, of the work of the Prussian Government Colonization Commission for the Polish provinces. The editor, the well-known Prussian historian and Conservative politician, Prof. Hans Delbrueck, who apprehends that Prussia's Polish policy must end with a defeat for Germanism, supplemented Dewitz's article with comment of his own. Professor Delbrueck based his statements on the impressions of a recent sojourn in Posen, to which city he had been invited by a local merchants' society to speak on the nationalities question. Here, in the center of the German-Polish struggle, he employed the opportunity to study the matter anew, on the spot. His impression was "as gloomy as possible,—hopeless, completely hopeless." He says:

> That our school policy has failed in principle; that it has yet made no Pole a German; that it not only has neither brought the Pole nearer to Germanism nor made him well-disposed, but has merely removed the whole Polish population farther and farther from Germanism,—appears still to be seriously denied by nobody. The colonization policy has its results, but why should it not have them? I was urged to visit a Colonization Commission's village. I replied: What for? I believe, even without having to convince myself by ocular testimony, that if the state gives three-quarters of a milliard of marks there can be established a number of beautiful peasants' villages and flourishing homesteads. But what has been proved by that? Is it not even mortifying to have to see how here the German peasant can be put on his feet solely with the help of charitable contributions from the tax-bag (9000 marks on an average to each household), while yonder the Pole, in spite of all oppression and all hindrances placed in his way by the authorities, conquers and establishes his existence, by himself, with the groschen saved by hard work in the mines? Which of the two is it then for whom posterity will have more respect?

And what finally has the German colonization done for the future of Germanism in the Province of Posen? Von Dewitz's article is valuable, observes Professor Delbrueck, in that it proves anew that against the mass of the Poles these German settlements do not weigh. Mr. Von Dewitz now demands the supplementing of the peasant colonization by that of German agricultural laborers.

> The program is as sweeping as possible: at least to supplant in great part the Polish working class in the villages and towns by the German. Whence are the Germans in such masses to come? Of what use are a few tens of thousands here? We count in Prussia no less than four millions of Poles. Every tenth man in Prussia is a Pole. What will the landed proprietors in the German sections say when the state will decoy the few settled agricultural laborers whom they still have with contributions from the tax-bag in order to settle them in Posen?

That Prussia will gain nothing when she directs her gaze solely upon the village population and shall not consider the towns, has been foretold by Professor Delbrueck from the very beginning.

> The colonization history of all peoples and times teaches that the character of a country will be determined in a much higher degree by the towns, where are the foci of the intellectual life, than by the villages. The notion that we may be able to win the towns, when we shall "encircle" them with German villages, is an illusion that can be entertained solely by a man without correct historical education. In the case of this or that little town this "encircling" may, with some assistance, succeed, and there even are one or two examples of this in Posen to be shown; but there neither has been given surety for the future nor are the results on the whole in proportion to the largeness of the outlay.

The result of our East Mark policy is, therefore, concludes the Professor, that in the mixed districts the Pole has remained as the free man, while the German by stipends, subventions, pecuniary assistance, premiums in addition to salary, connections with joint stock companies, the extension of guardianship over him, the control of his disposition,—"has been placed in dependency."

FINANCE AND BUSINESS

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH

THE PRESENT LIMITS OF WIRELESS

"PLEASE keep out and give us a chance on this C Q D. The lives of a schooner's crew may depend on it."

Thus ran a message of the Fire Island wireless station off New York harbor last May. It was an appeal to the wireless operator on an incoming commercial steamer to postpone the message he was sending, which interfered with the Fire Island operator's attempt to reach the Government revenue cutter *Mohawk,* and send it to the rescue of a schooner ashore at Moriches, Long Island, in such a heavy sea that the life-savers could not get to the crew.

Immediate assistance was imperative. Yet the wireless man on the liner would not stop, although it was afterward learned that he was simply sending a report to New York that his steamer had passed the Hook!

To prevent such interference with vital Government messages, a bill was introduced last month in the House by Representative Roberts of Massachusetts, a member of the House Naval Committee. Every wireless station is to be required to take out a Federal license. It seemed probable that the bill would pass, in spite of the opposition of the wireless association of some two thousand members, amateurs who have invested a total of a good deal of money and who have, of course, helped to perfect the invention by their constant experiments.

The tendency to Government control of wireless arises from (1) its military and naval indispensability in time of war; (2) its necessity for life-saving, as in the instance above; and (3) its help to commerce on the high seas. The chief shipping interests have already declared that they would be more justly served by Government than by private operation.

Without some method by which a pair of instruments can be so "tuned" that the operators can "talk" with each other in the same area across which any number of other pairs of operators are similarly talking, the business of wireless will have to be conducted within very clearly defined limits.

Thus an obvious use of the marvelous invention is to connect islands with the shore. Yet the progress of the wire cable has remained entirely normal.

Meanwhile, thousands of people are being solicited to buy stock in the different wireless companies by agents who pass lightly over the above serious limits to wireless expansion, especially on land. It is all very well to read that a message has been sent so many hundred miles farther than the previous record,—but commercially it is also necessary to consider that other operators in between those points have got to wait until the message is over, and that the farther apart the points, the more operators must be silent during that time.

Changes must come before some of the companies can pay the "enormous profits" they expect. One concern, for example, in order to make the promised returns to purchasers of its stock, at the prices its agents have been asking, will need to earn 10 to 20 per cent. annually on $50,000,000!

OLD-AGE PENSIONS SEEM "GOOD BUSINESS"

LAST month three large and practical American corporations began to pension their aged employees. Here is the stamp of "good business" on just the sort of plan that President Taft and Secretary of the Treasury MacVeagh have been framing, providing for the expenditure of up to $2,000,000 a year to relieve superannuated employees of the Government,—or the promise made by the English Liberal leader, Winston Churchill, to add to the old-age pensions law another that will *insure work* to 2,250,000 English unemployed, both skilled and unskilled.

So it is significant to learn that the great New York Central and Rock Island railroad companies put into force on the first of the year a system of pensions affecting their employees to the number of 100,000 and 10,000, respectively. A few days later similar privilege was granted to the 400 salaried employees of one of the largest ex-

clusively American fire insurance companies, the Continental.

Other old-line companies, like those at Hartford, have for many years practiced old-age pensioning, but without a definite system.

About ten railroads in all now make allowances to such of their employees as reach a certain age, usually 70, after having been in the company's service for a certain number of years,—20 in the case of the Rock Island, for instance. The Pennsylvania system is, of course, the largest. That of the Baltimore & Ohio is the oldest. The beneficiaries of the latter, however, must have previously joined a relief association.

The amount paid is usually 1 per cent. of the average yearly wage from start to retirement. Thus a conductor, leaving at 70, who started in as a brakeman when he was 30, will receive for life 40 per cent. of his average annual wages. Double this amount, 2 per cent., is paid by the Buffalo, Rochester & Pittsburgh.

TOO MUCH COPPER

IT was surprising last month to find governmental regulation suggested for so private an industry as copper mining, and by so prominent a figure as the head of the greatest smelting and refining company, Mr. Daniel Guggenheim.

At the time when he spoke the rumor was persistent of an enormous merger of copper mines. The report that no less a banking firm than J. P. Morgan & Company would manage the combination was used in the stock market to attract investors to the purchase of the stocks most likely to enter into such a merger,—at much higher prices than their present yield would justify.

Now copper stocks mean bread and butter to thousands of families, especially in New England and Michigan. Then, too, the United States gets a credit with other nations of some $75,000,000 gold for its yearly exports of the metal. In fact, copper production exceeds in value the output of every other mineral except iron,—which plays no such part in the world market.

So Mr. Guggenheim aroused wide anxiety by his flat statement that the policy of the leading American copper producers was "bad." He suggested a limitation of the output by the Government, perhaps by a method similar to that used in Germany. There the very highest price is paid for the product because the Government regulates the sale and production "even to encouraging and fostering combinations for the regulation and production and the fixing of the prices by mutual agreement. Such stableized prices should, in the copper industry, be sufficient so as to show much more than a usual commercial profit, even to miners showing the higher cost. Otherwise the incentive will not be given to seek for the original prospect."

But Americans, by their extravagant overproduction and competition, declared Mr. Guggenheim, "are throwing away millions of dollars, wasting the mineral resources of this country."

In this magazine, three months ago, attention was called to the copper estimate of the London *Statist,* the English financial authority that is most friendly to American enterprise. As much as 15 per cent. of American copper was being produced, the *Statist* calculated, either without profit or at a loss.

A careful student of copper, Horace J. Stevens, expected last month that "the steady increase" in the consumption of the metal and a "somewhat smaller increase" in its production would make the year 1910 satisfactory.

On the 11th the Copper Producers' Association reported a decrease of 11,237,416 pounds in the stocks on hand. Consumption was about 7,000,000 pounds more and production about 4,000,000 less than the month before,—an encouraging tendency.

THE TWO SIDES OF THE TELEPHONE DISCUSSION

THE fight was on last month, with new developments and wider interest than ever, between the friends of the telephone as a natural monopoly and the advocates of competition in this as well as all other kinds of "public service" companies.

From New York, a State in which the Bell companies are very strong, it was learned that the Legislative Committee, evidence before which was noticed in these columns last month, will recommend the control of telephone and telegraph operations in so far as they affect the public, in matters of rates and service. The president of the Bell lines had expressed himself to this committee, as on other occasions, in favor of public regulation "if intelligent." Much protest was made, however, by many "independ-

ent" telephone companies in the State, mostly in the formative stage, and in a position to be much hampered by regulation.

Such control would probably aid the "Bell" companies, which are in a position to give better service than the others at present. Contrariwise, it was stated in testimony taken in St. Louis on the 8th that the independent telephone companies were raising $150,000 to oppose absorption by the big American Tel. & Tel. of other and weaker "independents."

Here is the view of the radical or insurgent citizen. He represents the spirit of pioneer development, and scents danger in monopoly of any kind. He insists on competition with these as with all public service companies.

Just such a hot discussion, only with railroads as the object, took place in the eighties. Men in the big way of business, with their friends, wanted through cars, which meant fewer different railroad managements and companies. Different railroads had different gauges and different stations at the same terminal points. Passengers had to change cars, and bulk freight to be broken frequently. All this expense, however, said the insurgents of that day, was a very small price to pay for free and open competition. Nor did they trust regulation of rates and service by anybody to represent the people.

To-day we have through cars across the continent,—and the Interstate Commerce Commission.

THE TELEPHONE AND THE SUBSCRIBER

A PUZZLING feature in the attempt of an independent telephone company to enter New York City in competition with the Bell lines, some years ago, was the contrast between the testimonial letters widely advertised by one company and those similarly advertised by the other.

Scores of letters from business men in localities enjoying telephone competition were reprinted by the company seeking the franchise, to show that said competition had been beneficial to the subscriber.

Whereas the Bell company took even larger space in the newspaper advertising columns, and reproduced even more letters from similar business men, declaring competition to be an unmitigated nuisance.

The facts in the case show a difference between rural and thickly settled communities. There are only thirty companies in the Bell system. Associated with these are 7800 "independents." Most of these are rural or neighborhood enterprises, covering localities not densely enough populated to attract "Bell" investment. Unconnected with the Bell system are some 16,000 more such neighborhood associations.

Plainly the country dwellers of the nation are much happier because of the 2,100,000 stations operated by these 23,800 smaller companies. They do not compete with the Bell lines as much as they extend them, now or potentially.

But in a couple of hundred communities, mainly in the Mississippi Valley and the Middle West, where an independent company bids for business along with the Bell Company, this question has become very important and pressing of late; whether the public is served better by both than it would be by either with a monopoly.

One fact stands out,—that in nearly all the cities in question the subscribers to either of the systems can now show more telephones per thousand of whole population than they could before there was any competition.

Thus new construction may have gone at a more rapid pace than without competition.

But subscribers to only one system cannot reach subscribers to the other alone. The figures are given by a prominent "independent" that in eight of the largest cities that have competition only twelve out of each one hundred users subscribe to both telephones. Of the remaining eighty-eight, one portion cannot reach the other. They could be served more cheaply, other things being equal, if the companies were combined, with duplicate poles, wires, instruments, and operators got rid of.

The expense of duplication is the price of suspicion. Whether it is justified or not will appear from the failure or success of State efforts to regulate wire communication.

What has actually been done for the public of New York City by the commission to which it is proposed to add control over the wires is shown in the case of the surface cars on Manhattan Island. The report issued on the 13th of last month shows that these trolley lines, under orders from the commission, increased certain facilities to passengers by proportions varying from 11 to 57 per cent. Just such a commission was advocated for Ohio on the 3d by Speaker Mooney, of the General Assembly, who liked the way they do it in New York. The Maryland bill for a similar protective body seems likely to pass at the present session.

THE TELEPHONE AND THE INVESTOR

"CAN I get a good run for my money in the stock of the independent 'phone company starting up here,—or had I better stick to the American Telephone & Telegraph securities?"

This month it is particularly interesting to examine the facts of record disclosed to the cold-blooded investors who are more and more frequently asking questions like the above,—who want so much per cent. with so much safety, and are not affected by local, personal, or political bias.

It often surprises inquirers from New England and other strongholds of the Bell companies, to learn the number of well-conducted "independents." Such companies may be on a very small scale and yet managed very conservatively. Readers of the REVIEW of eight years ago this month recall the instance of the co-operative exchange at Grand Rapids. It had already grown to 300 subscribers, having started eight years before with only seventy. None but subscribers were allowed to hold the stock. The company was prosperous and its dividends of 1½ per cent. brought the cost of a business 'phone down to only $1.50 a month and of a residence 'phone to 25 cents, as compared with the $4 and $3, respectively, that the Bell Company had been charging.

Such local problems have been met by local people and on the whole satisfactorily to the extent of 16,000 different companies, not connected in any way with the Bell system. The average in this group is small, about sixty-two "stations." Many are mutual associations or co-operations, like that at Grand Rapids. They represent so many groups of neighbors who want to talk with one another but who are not densely enough planted around a given center to attract the attention of the big Tel. & Tel. Company. Nor would they in most cases supply many patrons for its long-distance lines.

Not so promising to the investor is the group of about two hundred and twenty-five companies averaging half a million or so of capitalization. In cities like St. Louis and Kansas City, such "independents" are doing business on a good scale, paying dividends and satisfying the public.

But leaving these isolated successful territorial groups, one finds that nearly 10 per cent. of the companies in the half-million dollar average class have failed within the last few years. About half of them have found that the business could not be carried on properly without a raise of rates, which, of course, usually brings as much dissatisfaction from subscribers and harassment by local authorities as might be visited upon the monopoly itself.

Thus heavy disappointment has come to thousands of school-teachers, ministers, and others of limited means, whose local loyalty had been wrought upon by the promoters of bonds sold at a discount and carrying a stock bonus.

Often the managers of the new company seemed as ignorant of telephone science as the investors. They found that they could not pay the high interest on the money that the discounted bonds represented and also pay dividends on stock signifying pure "water."

One obstacle was the unexpected wearing out of equipment. Against this the Bell companies have learned to write off about 6 per cent. a year. Reports from independent companies do not show nearly as high an average.

Then peculiar to this business is the increasing expense per instrument with the number of instruments used,—just the reverse of most enterprises.

Also peculiar is the impossibility of insuring wires against damage by storm, at a reasonable rate. The telephone company must do its own insuring, must establish a reserve fund out of earnings. The principle of "averaging risks" makes it obvious that the smaller a company, the less it is in a position to insure itself economically.

Here are the cautions for the investor in the independent company: Make sure that the management is not interested in a construction company which makes too large a profit on selling poles and wires and instruments to the new 'phone company. Compare it for capitalization *per station* with established companies. For instance, the majority of the larger "independents" average more than $200 per station, though they have hardly any of the expensive long-distance lines; while the Bell system, with 456,000 miles of "long-distance" wires, averages but $149 per station. Finally, scan the allowance for depreciation. Together with operating expenses this should run nearly three-fourths of the gross earnings, on the Bell basis. Many of the independent companies spend but $50 or $60 per $100 of business done on running and maintaining the plant.

SELMA LAGERLÖF, A WRITER OF MODERN FAIRY TALES

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

SELMA LAGERLÖF is one of the greatest of an increasing group of writers who represent a synthesis of two past literary epochs, and who, for this reason, must be held especially representative of the literary epoch that is now coming. She has revived not only the courage but the ability to feel and dream and aspire that belonged to the scorned Romanticists of the early nineteenth century. But this recovery of something long held to be lost and outlived forever she has achieved for us without surrender of that intimate connection between poetry and real life which was established by the Naturalists in the latter half of the same century. The Romanticists spoke to our hearts alone. The Naturalists spoke only to our heads. For the men and women of the new epoch we have not yet found an adequate name, but we know that they are speaking to head and heart alike. We know that Selma Lagerlöf's brightest fairy raiments are woven out of what to the ordinary mind would seem like the most commonplace patches of everyday life,—and we know as well that when she tempts us into far-off, fantastic worlds of her own making, her ultimate object is to help us see the inner meanings of the too often overemphasized superficial actualities of our own existence.

SELMA LAGERLÖF, THE SWEDISH AUTHORESS

(Writer of modern fairy tales and winner of the Nobel prize, $40,000, for literature, awarded to her in December last)

"The Saga of the Making of a Saga,"—such is the English equivalent of the title to a little story in which Miss Lagerlöf describes how she came to write the book that, by a single stroke, brought her a national reputation and started her on the road to international fame. That book was "Gösta Berling's Saga."

It appeared with meteoric suddenness out of the deep obscurity which surrounds any schoolteacher in a small country town. Prior to that momentous event the existence of its author had been spent in almost cloistered seclusion, far from the highways of culture and from the kind of men and events that make history and headlines in the newspapers. Of what the world calls life she had had no taste. Of what it names doing she had done nothing. Therefore, the world wondered greatly at the unforeshadowed feat, repeating anew its perennial cry: "Can anything good come out of Nazareth,—or out of Landskrona?" When she produced a second book almost as good as the first one, the wonder increased. But after that she was accepted as one of those from whom it is natural to expect great things. Within a surprisingly short time her books and her name spread beyond her native country. And to-day, at the age of fifty-one, this unaccountable old spinster is known and loved throughout the whole Western world not as the lucky winner of a $40,000 prize but as a seldom surpassed teller of fairy tales of that rare kind that may be read with equal pleasure by children and grown-ups.

There is an inland province of Sweden called Wärmland. It is full of big forests and small lakes, of rough rocks and merry rivers, of great beauties and humble homes. It is poor in wealth, but rich in men and dreams. Out of it have come some of Sweden's finest and sweetest poets. There Selma Lagerlöf was born in an old rectory named Marbacka, which, with all its quiet charms, she has pictured in a chapter of her first book headed "Lilliecrona's Home." She was an introspective, sickly child, and while her brothers and sisters roamed freely around the countryside she tarried at home and listened enraptured to those innumerable tales and legends with which that province has always been alive. Out of a swarming multitude of such tales,—told now by her father, now by the servants, and now again by some old crone drifting in for a meal,—one stood out brighter, more fascinating than all the others. It was the tale

of the old cavaliers that rode from manor to manor, making the whole region ring with their merry laughter and their crazy pranks. Her ears were always open to anything told, but this tale alone had a power over her heart that none other might exert.

These tales stirred restless longings in her heart. They seemed to be calling to her, whispering to her about some great task that she was to perform some time. Gradually those vague longings shaped themselves into a passionate wish that she, herself, might become a weaver of tales to which not only silent little home-sitting girls but the whole wide world might listen. But what she never imagined was that the task waiting for her might be to retell the very tales that had grown so dear to her heart, tales that even her love looked upon as mere gossip of the countryside.

When not listening, she read; and when not reading, she wrote. An endless stream of wild, romantic adventures flowed from her pen, each one more unreal and original than the preceding one. Her heroes represented every age but her own. They hailed from every corner of the globe but Wärmland. Most of them had lived before,—in the Arabian Nights, in the Icelandic sagas, or in the romances of Walter Scott. In those days it never occurred to her that heroes not less worthy to be sung might be found much nearer to herself,—even in her own memory, where dwelt those old cavaliers of Ekeby.

When not listening or reading or writing, she was "going about waiting for fortune to arrive." This fortune her dreams pictured in the form of a great publisher who was to discover by mere chance what she had written and find it so wonderful that he had to publish it. "And then," to quote her own words, "everything else would follow as a matter of course." Strange to say, that was pretty much what did happen at last, but not until many years later, when she had long ceased to wait for the fortune that seemed never to come.

At twenty-two she went to Stockholm to study at the Normal School in order that she might earn her living as a teacher. Still the dream of a writer's fame lingered within her. Still the old legends were filling her mind like so much mist, and still she was straining her eyes to glimpse the great stories she felt sure were lying beyond that mist. One day she was walking alone along one of the streets of Stockholm,—a most ordinary street, without a trace of beauty or poetry to set it apart,—when all of a sudden a great light blazed up within her. At the heart of that light she saw what she was to tell,—saw *the tale*,—saw that it was the old familiar one of the cavaliers at Ekeby,—saw that it brought her heroes as luminous as any known to poetry. In that moment of vision she saw her future mission so vividly that it made her stop right where she was. And as she stood there "the whole street rose up toward the sky and sank down again, rose up and sank down." And when she returned to reality once more she must needs look around with blushing cheeks and her mind wondering whether, perchance, others had also seen what she saw, or whether they had merely seen the foolish way in which she was behaving.

She did not enter at once upon the task she knew now to be hers, for while she had discovered what she had to tell she had not yet learned how she was to tell it. Years of hard study and hard labor for a living passed by before more light came. She tried and tried,—and mostly in the manner of the day. Remember that it was the day of naturalism, of photography, of preoccupation with surface appearances. How could fairy tales,—even though they were real,—be told in the manner of such a day? So she strove in vain, her material and her form refusing obstinately to meet in that harmony which makes a real story. She tried verse and she tried to wield the old tale into a drama. "No, no, no!" it cried,—and there she was, until one day word reached her that her old parental home was to be sold.

She journeyed in haste to have one more sight of it before it ceased to be a home,—and there, in her childhood surroundings, the final inspiration came to her. The spirit of romanticism which had lain dead and buried so many years came to life again and took up its abode in her soul, filling it with a new insight and a new courage. Then and there she vowed to tell the old tale in her own way, humbly but without fear, letting it come just as it would choose to come. On her return to the little city in southern Sweden where she was teaching school she sketched out three chapters in so many nights, "the pages filling themselves with a quickness that she had never dreamt of." After that the week-day cares of her profession closed in upon her again, and again a long time passed without much being done, the one difference being that now she knew both what she had to do and the way of doing it.

But at last her saga was drawing near its triumphant climax. A Swedish periodical offered a big prize for the best original novel of a hundred pages. Eight days before the closing of the contest Miss Lagerlöf decided to try for the prize with five of the chapters she had already sketched out. Two of these had assumed a form that made them immediately available, but the other three had to be practically written anew. At that time she was visiting the home of one of her sisters in the very heart of the region where the tales of the cavaliers had sprung into life. The night before the day when the manuscript must be mailed she had to attend a party. This was held in the very manor where had once lived the evil genius of the cavaliers, that old Sintram who had made a pact with the Evil One and who used to be seen traveling homeward at night after two black fire-breathing bulls. In that legend-haunted house Miss Lagerlöf wrote the last twenty pages, sitting up all night after the party had come to an end.

The rest seems almost dull in comparison with what has been told so far. She was awarded the prize, as we all know,—and this, although the work she submitted was merely a torso. To complete it became then an imperative necessity, and friends arranged things so that she could take a year's leave of absence for that purpose. And in 1891 "Gösta Berling's Saga" reached the public in the shape with which we are now familiar.

Once she had begun to write in earnest, she simply had to keep on. More Wärmland tales

rose out of her memory demanding to be told. Volume after volume grew out of her busy pen. In some ways they were not as good as the first one; in other ways they were even better. That initial spontaneity which gave to "Gösta Berling's Saga" a niche all by itself had been spent and could never be recovered. In its place came artistic restraint and sense of proportion in growing degrees. And on the whole, it might be said that each new book showed definite signs of advance.

After a while she left her teacher's position to give herself undividedly to writing. King Oscar and his youngest son, the "painter-prince," Eugene, befriended her and enabled her to realize her long cherished desire of seeing foreign lands and peoples. She won more and more admirers among small and great, among rich and poor. She bought back her beloved Marbacka with the money her pen had earned. And,—what mattered more than anything else to herself, perhaps,—new tales began to reach her, tales having their roots in that vast foreign world of which she had dreamed when she tried to borrow heroes from Walter Scott and the Arabian Nights. Thus she wrote "The Miracles of Antichrist," which is laid in Sicily, and "Jerusalem," which begins in the Swedish province of Dalecarlia, her own winter home for many years now, and ends in Palestine. The first part of the latter work proved a tale even greater than that which she had woven around the wayward figure of Gösta Berling. Its first and final chapters are counted among the finest things our latter-day literature has to offer.

Long before this second masterpiece of hers placed her fame on a solid basis that fame had spread to other countries than her own, and, as a rule, she was received by the public as one carrying precious gifts. Not so in this country, however, when her three first volumes were brought out here in translations that left little to wish for. A few knowing ones read and gave thanks and passed on the good word: that once more it had pleased the gods of song and saga to bless the earth with a true poet. But the mass remained indifferent. Soon copies of those three volumes might be had for a few cents from among the deadwood littering the stalls outside the second-hand bookstores, which is the customary sign of commercial failure in the land of letters. When "Jerusalem" was ready the firm that had already obtained the American rights to the English translation deemed it wiser not to make use of them. Thus it happens that, to this day, American readers are unable to buy the book which many lovers of Miss Lagerlöf's art consider her greatest so far.

But here, too, she was to conquer in the end. Another firm risked the publication of that group of short stories to which she has given the name of "Christ Legends." These charming tales, at once so quaintly unreal and so startlingly real, so daringly familiar and so profoundly reverent, took the fancy of our public as decisively as the previous volumes had failed to do so. The result was that the scorned earlier works also came into honor. And nowadays you may look long and hard without hope of finding a cheap copy of "Gösta Berling's Saga" or "Invisible Links" or "The Miracles of Antichrist," for they have all, long ago, been snapped up and read.

TRANSLATIONS OF MISS LAGERLÖF'S WORKS

FIVE of the works of Miss Lagerlöf have been translated into English and published in this country,* the first of these being "The Story of Gösta Berling," which appeared in 1899. In many respects this is the strongest and most characteristic work of the author. The story,—or "saga," as it is in the original,—of Gösta Berling is a chronicle founded on actual occurrences of life on a country estate in the province of Wärmland, in Sweden, at the beginning of the past century. Gösta Berling is a preacher whose appetite for strong drink brings him down to the life of a pensioner upon the estate of a wealthy woman whose husband is an iron magnate. He is, however, a mighty man in love and war, although "slave of a whim, of the desire of the moment, wild and terrible, but possessor of a tremendous power, fearless of everything." The story of the loves and hates, adventures and customs of this lonely part of South Sweden, with its impenetrable forests and many lakes and rivers, is told with a swing and style that is almost Homeric. Nine editions of the book have already been sold in Sweden. The English translation now published in this country has been made by Pauline Bancroft Flach.

In the collection entitled "Invisible Links" there are fourteen short stories. These are also tales of the Northland and they are full of the same power and charm of style that characterize "Gösta Berling." Each tale treats of at least one vigorous incident, and each is characterized by a play of fancy and fascination of style that at times suggest Hawthorne. Noteworthy among these tales are: "The King's Grave," "The Legend of Reor," and "The Romance of a Fisherman's Wife." The English translation is by Pauline Bancroft Flach.

Perhaps the most striking, original work of Miss Lagerlöf is "The Miracles of Antichrist," which treats, not of the Northland, but of traditions, customs, and characters in sunny Sicily. The superstitiousness, the picturesque poverty, the vindictiveness, and the impulsive devotion of the Sicilian character are set forth with a vitality and skill remarkable in the work of a writer so bred and steeped in Scandinavian traditions. "The Miracles of Antichrist" was also translated by Pauline Bancroft Flach.

Nothing since the days of Hans Christian Andersen has so stirred the children of not only Scandinavia but of Europe as Selma Lagerlöf's "Wonderful Adventures of Nils." This delightful and original fairy story tells of many wonderful adventures that happened to the boy Nils, of battles between rats, of talking cows, wicked foxes, etc. Within three weeks after publication in Sweden more than 30,000 copies of the book were sold. So accurate is the author's knowledge of animal life, and so stimulating her description of the habits of animate nature, that the book has been adopted in the public schools of Sweden as equal to a text-book in natural history. The translation of the

* The Story of Gösta Berling. Little, Brown & Co. 473 pp. $1.50. Invisible Links. Little, Brown & Co. 286 pp. $1.50. The Miracles of Antichrist. Little, Brown & Co. 378 pp. $1.50. The Wonderful Adventures of Nils. Doubleday, Page & Co. 430 pp., ill. $1.50. Christ Legends. Henry Holt & Co. 272 pp. $1.25.

English edition of this work is by Velma Swanston Howard. We are promised in the near future a second volume.

In "Christ Legends" we have a collection of eleven short stories of the marvelous based on traditions, legends, and "sagas" found among all peoples regarding the birth, boyhood, and life of the Christ. The one reciting how the robin got his red breast is perhaps the most characteristic of the collection. It shows the author's daring, original, yet reverent, treatment of the sacred subject. "Christ Legends" also has been translated into English by Velma Swanston Howard.

THE NEW BOOKS

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

One of the most important travel books of the season is the story of Dr. Sven Hedin's discoveries and adventures in Tibet, which he has brought out in two volumes under the general title "Trans-Himalaya."[1] Besides being a closely woven, carefully prepared account of the achievements of a scientific explorer, geographer, and ethnologist, this work is an entertainingly told story of startling experiences, exciting adventures, and really remarkable achievements in the field of exploration. The expedition of this Swedish explorer started in August, 1906, entering the Forbidden Land from the northwest. He thoroughly explored the country, penetrating with the aid of his thirty-seven Asiatic followers into sections in which not only had no Western man ever trod but in which the existence, even, of Europe was unknown. Dr. Hedin's description of his meeting with the Tashi Lama shows that head of the Buddhist church to be "not a divinity in human form but a man who in kindness of heart, innocence, and purity approaches as near as possible to perfection." These two volumes are almost literally crowded with illustrations, largely from photographs but in many cases reproduced from drawings and water-color sketches by the author. There are 388 illustrations and ten maps to the entre work.

A posthumous volume by the late Jeremiah Curtin describes the author's experiences during "A Journey in Southern Siberia."[2] This expedition was undertaken by Mr. Curtin for the purpose of collecting and studying the primitive folklore and myth tales of the Mongols. These are recorded in the volume under consideration in Mr. Curtin's well-known direct, simple, and suggestive style. The volume is illustrated.

It has become a question, not whether the season's output of books will include a work on Italy and the Italians, but how many books on this topic and by whom will they be written. A very sumptuous volume of leisurely travel and comment is Henry James' "Italian Hours."[3] This book is made up of exquisite and sympathetic descriptions of the beauties of Italian cities and the temperament of their citizens. There are thirty-two full-page illustrations in color by Joseph Pennell.

A handsomely illustrated volume of travel, by Rodolfo Lanciani, describes "Wanderings in the Roman Campagna."[4] Professor Lanciani has become known all over the world for his brilliant, authoritative descriptive works on ancient and modern Rome. A number of suggestive personal experiences are included in the volume.

In view of the growing interest of the American public in the subject of waterways, the new book by Herbert Quick on "American Inland Waterways"[5] has a peculiar timeliness. Mr. Quick makes in this volume a comparison of our own water highways with like channels of trade in foreign countries. He discusses their relation to railway transportation, their creation, restoration, and maintenance. The author adopts the sound view that it is wasteful

DR. SVEN HEDIN, THE SWEDISH EXPLORER
(Whose book, "Trans-Himalaya," has just been translated into English)

to compel trade to follow the water unless those facilities are provided which are necessary to make water traffic economical as compared with land traffic. The photographic illus-

[1] Trans-Himalaya. By Sven Hedin. Macmillan. 2 vols., 875 pp., ill. $7.50.
[2] A Journey in Southern Siberia. By Jeremiah Curtin. Little, Brown. 319 pp., ill. $3.
[3] Italian Hours. By Henry James. Houghton Mifflin. 505 pp., ill. $7.50.
[4] Wanderings in the Roman Campagna. By Rodolfo Lanciani. Houghton Mifflin. 378 pp., ill. $5.
[5] American Inland Waterways. By Herbert Quick. Putnam. 241 pp., ill. $3.50.

trations which accompany the text are fresh and pertinent.

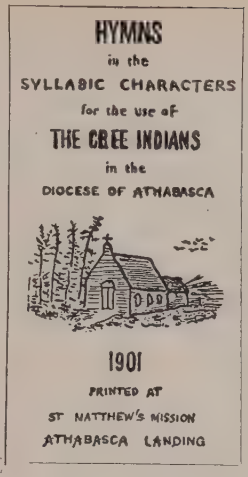
A curious book of travels, differing somewhat from contemporary works, was written by John Davis, an Englishman, early in the last century and dedicated to Thomas Jefferson.[1] Unlike most of the English travelers in America at that period, Davis was a writer and more interested in literary developments in the new country than in other phases of pioneer life. He served for some months as a teacher in South Carolina and Virginia, and spent in all four years and a half in journeying through the States from 1798 to 1802. He visited the new city of Washington at the time of Jefferson's inauguration. The new edition of his travels is edited, with an introduction and notes, by A. J. Morrison.

BOOKS ABOUT CANADA AND THE FAR NORTH

Two recently issued books on Canada emphasize the vastness of the Dominion's domain and resources as well as the fact that Canada now stands on the threshold of national existence with more than one serious problem facing her. Miss Agnes Laut's "Canada: The Empire of the North"[2] tells again the romantic story of the Dominion's growth from colony to virtual kingdom. The book is full of historic incident and graphic writing. It closes with a brief section devoted to the probable future of the Dominion and the question, "Will she stand the strain, the tremendous strain, of prosperity, and the corruption that is attendant on prosperity?" Mr. Emerson Hough's sermon,—for such it is,—on England's duty to Canada is entitled, "The Sowing."[3] Mr. Hough has some hard things to say about both the United States and Great Britain and some very fine things to tell us about Canada. Sounding all through his text, also, is a warning of the dangers of a too-rapid civilization. Both these volumes are illustrated.

Miss Agnes Deans Cameron has written a spirited account of a woman's journey through Canada to the Arctic.[4] This journey, begun at Athabasca Landing, was practically all by water to Fort McPherson and comprised in all 1854 miles. The route was by the Athabasca River and Lake, Great Slave River and Lake, and the Mackenzie River. At Fort McPherson Miss Cameron was far above the Arctic Circle and within a few miles of the Arctic Ocean itself. The greater part of the river journey was made by steamers, which during the summer season make trips of more or less regularity. At Athabasca Landing Miss Cameron found two women who have served as missionaries to the Cree Indians for many years and have printed on a hand-press in the Cree language syllabic hymns and portions of the Gospel.

It is eminently fitting that the first comprehensive description of Labrador to be given to the world should be authorized by the man who



A CREE HYMN-BOOK IN USE AT ATHABASCA LANDING

(From Miss Cameron's "The New North")

has done more than anyone else to bring that far-away land into touch with our civilization.[5] In the preparation of this volume Dr. Grenfell has had the co-operation of W. S. Wallace, Reginald A. Daly, Albert P. Low, Charles W. Townsend, E. B. Delabarre, and other writers qualified by special knowledge to treat of various phases of the subject. As to the future of Labrador Dr. Grenfell is optimistic. Difficult as seems the problem of reclamation of this land to civilization, Dr. Grenfell believes that harder problems than this have been successfully solved.

"Trailing and Camping in Alaska,"[6] by Addison M. Powell, gives the experiences of a decade in prospecting for copper deposits in the famous Copper River district. The country is described in an interesting way, but the story is more important for the insight that it gives into pioneer life in the years immediately following the Klondike excitement.

SOME NEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY

The American Bureau of Industrial Research, together with the Carnegie Institution of Washington, has been engaged for more than six years in collecting manuscripts and printed materials relating to industrial conditions in America from the colonial period to the present time. It is said that the bureau alone has expended over $75,000, which was contributed by men of wealth and by students who desired to make such data available while it was still possible to do so. A selection of the more important documents thus acquired is to be published in a series of ten volumes,[7] edited by Prof. John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, assisted by Ulrich B. Phillips,

[1] Travels of Four Years and a Half in the United States of America. By John Davis. Holt. 429 pp. $2.50.

[2] Canada: The Empire of the North. By Agnes C. Laut. Ginn & Co. 446 pp., ill. $1.75.

[3] The Sowing. By Emerson Hough. Chicago: Vanderhoof-Gunn Company. 222 pp., ill.

[4] The New North. By Agnes Deans Cameron. Appletons. 398 pp., ill. $3.

[5] Labrador: The Country and the People. By Wilfred T. Grenfell and others. Macmillan. 497 pp., ill. $2.25.

[6] Trailing and Camping in Alaska. By Addison M. Powell. New York: A. Wessels. 379 pp., ill. $2.

[7] Documentary History of the American Industrial Society. Vols. I and II. Edited by Ulrich B. Phillips. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company. 375 pp. each. $5 each.

Eugene A. Gilmore, Helen L. Summer, and John B. Andrews. The first two volumes, for which Professor Phillips, of Tulane University, is responsible, are devoted to plantation and frontier conditions, 1649-1863. A preface to the entire work is contributed by Prof. Richard T. Ely, who was the leading spirit in founding and organizing the Bureau of Industrial Research, and an introduction by Prof. John Bates Clark, of Columbia University. These two volumes present a remarkably vivid picture (painted by contemporaries) of the industrial structure of the Old South,—the planters, the overseers, the white "redemptioners," the negro slaves, the free negroes, the town artisans, the slave-traders, the European immigrants, the frontier farmers, the Indian fighters, and the desperadoes.

A comprehensive and scholarly historical and descriptive work on "The German Element in the United States,"[1] showing the part played by people of German birth in the upbuilding of American life and culture, has been brought out in two volumes from the pen of Dr. Albert Bernhardt Faust, professor of German in Cornell University. Professor Faust spent more than ten years in collecting material and in preparing this work. It not only deals with the great personalities of Teutonic birth and language who have contributed to our political, social, and educational civilization, but also analyzes the importance and significance of the present-day German element in this country.

REAR-ADMIRAL CHADWICK

(Whose new work, "The Relations of the United States and Spain," is noticed on this page)

The two volumes are illustrated with portraits and other illustrations, including a number of maps and charts.

[1] The German Element in the United States. By Albert B. Faust. Houghton Mifflin. 2 vols., 1200 pp., ill. $7.50.

An elaborate discussion of the diplomatic relations of the United States, covering more than 600 pages, by Rear-Admiral Chadwick,[2] has been (so the author tells us) the outcome of a study of the causes of the war of 1898. Admiral (then Captain) Chadwick began soon after the close of the Spanish-American conflict to study the war as a purely military events. The idea grew upon him and in this

DR. ALBERT BERNHARDT FAUST

(Author of a scholarly, painstaking work on "The German Element in the United States")

volume we have the story of more than one hundred years of what he calls "really a racial strife." Admiral Chadwick writes with a clear, direct, and suggestive style and fortifies his moderate, scholarly conclusions with copious notes and bibliographical references.

To attempt the illustrations of the manners of eighteenth century London, which Mr. Henry B. Wheatley informs us had been his ambition for years, it was inevitable that the graphic art of Hogarth should have been called upon. This was the genesis of Mr. Wheatley's illustrated study of the English capital more than a century ago, which he has entitled "Hogarth's London."[3] Fifty-three Hogarth prints are used to illustrate the description.

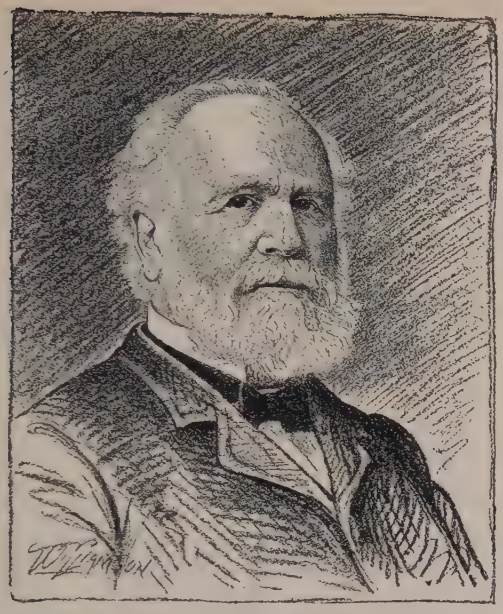
BIOGRAPHY

One of the ablest of the American geologists of the last generation was Prof. Josiah Dwight Whitney, of Harvard University. Although Professor Whitney died in 1896, his "Life and Letters,"[4] by Edwin Tenney Brewster, have only

[2] The Relations of the United States and Spain: Diplomacy. By F. E. Chadwick. Scribners. 610 pp. $4.

[3] Hogarth's London. By H. B. Wheatley. Dutton 467 pp., ill. $4.80.

[4] Life and Letters of Josiah Dwight Whitney. By Edwin T. Brewster. Houghton Mifflin Company. 411 pp., ill. $2.50.



PROFESSOR J. D. WHITNEY, THE AMERICAN GEOLOGIST

(Whose "Life and Letters" have just appeared)

recently come from the press. The highest mountain peak in the United States outside of Alaska was named for Professor Whitney, and this fact commemorates fittingly the geologist's pioneer work in exploring the mineral resources of California and much of Washington, Oregon, and Nevada. That work was done in the 60s and 70s, but before that Professor Whitney had had a great part in making known to the world of science the copper deposits of the Lake Superior region as well as the lead fields of Wisconsin and Iowa. Not only was Professor Whitney a pioneer in geological field work, but he was also one of the first Americans to introduce German university methods on this side of the water. He was a brother of Prof. William Dwight Whitney.

Captain Grant Marsh, who brought to civilization the news of Custer's destruction by the Sioux Indians, is the hero of a historical study by Joseph Mills Hanson: "The Conquest of the Missouri."[1] There are maps and a number of portraits and views.

A frank biography of an unusual life is given by Yung Wing, who is one of the commissioners of the Chinese Educational Commission, under the title "My Life in China and America."[2] Mr. Wing, who was for years associate Chinese minister at Washington, has a doctor's degree from Yale, where back in 1854 he took two first prizes in English composition. His account of his early life in China, his career at Yale, his return to his native country and participation in the Taiping rebellion, his association with Li Hung Chang, and his contributions to the new "Chinese Educational Movement" are all set forth in this volume.

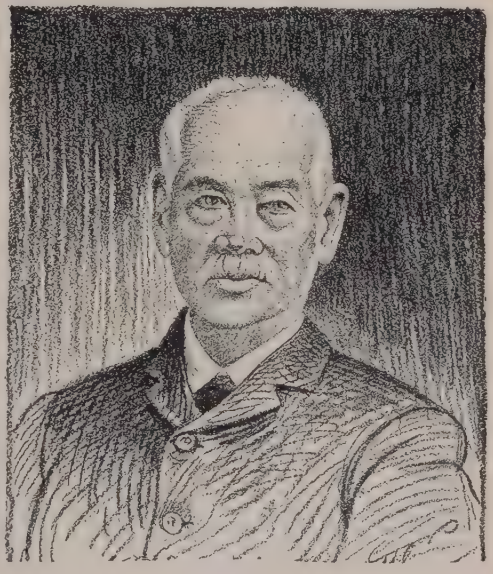
[1] The Conquest of the Missouri. By Joseph Mills Hanson. McClurg. 458 pp., ill. $2.

[2] My Life in China and America. By Yung Wing. Holt. 286 pp.

SOCIOLOGICAL WORKS

One of the fields of American economic history in which comparatively few studies have yet been made is that covering the part taken by women. Miss Edith Abbott, of Hull House, Chicago, has been engaged for some years in prosecuting such studies, and the results of her work appear in a volume recently issued by the Appletons.[3] Miss Abbott's investigations go back to the Colonial period and the establishment of the factory system in this country and then take up particular industries, such as cotton, boots and shoes, cigar-making, clothing, and printing. The problem of women's wages is briefly discussed and there is a final chapter on "public opinion and the working woman." Miss Abbott supplies numerous references to the authorities consulted and important statistical material is printed at the end of the volume. The book is thoroughly scientific in method and concise and orderly in the presentation of material.

The results of intensive cultivation in the same field are presented in a volume on "Women and the Trades"[4] (The Pittsburg Survey), by Elizabeth Beardsley Butler. This investigation, like all of those prosecuted under the name of The Pittsburg Survey, was made possible by the generous appropriations of the Russell Sage Foundation, although the work had been planned by the Charities Publication Committee before the organization of the Sage Foundation. Miss Butler's interpretation of

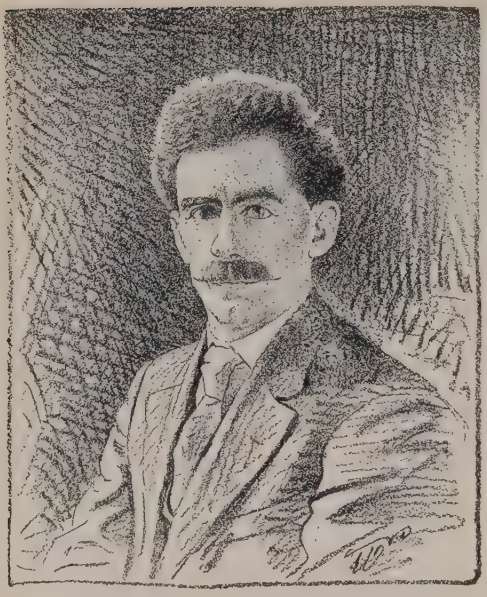


DR. YUNG WING

(Whose biography has just been published in English)

[3] Women in Industry. By Edith Abbott. Appletons. 409 pp. $2.

[4] Women and the Trades. By Elizabeth Beardsley Butler. New York: Charities Publication Committee. 440 pp., ill. $1.50.



JOHN SPARGO, THE SOCIALIST AUTHOR
(Whose latest work, "The Substance of Socialism," is noticed on this page)

the industrial situation in Pittsburg doubtless applies in one phase or another to many other American industrial communities. It is a detailed study of the part played by women in canning and confectionery factories, in the manufacture of the famous Pittsburg "stogies," in the needle trade, in laundries, in metal, lamp, and glass factories, and in miscellaneous trades. The unusual range of industries having their habitat in Pittsburg makes this survey peculiarly valuable as an exposition of typical industrial conditions in America.

Steady is the increase in the number of volumes that are coming from the press devoted to the expounding and illustrating of the idea of social revolt as it is to-day whether it be called "socialism" or "anarchism." One of the honored names in the list of writers on socialistic topics to which respect is always accorded is that of John Spargo. Heubsch has just brought out Mr. Spargo's "Substance of Socialism,"[1] which in a clear and compact way logically elaborates the text of its title. The same publisher brings out Edward Bernstein's "Evolutionary Socialism."[2] In this good translation (by Edith C. Harvey) from the original German we have the main facts concerning the Bernstein controversy over the ascendency of Karl Marx in the socialistic camp.

Turning from advocates of socialism to its opponents we find a vigorous "warning" as to the "Menace of Socialism,"[3] by W. Lawler Wilson. The author, who is an English writer on political economy, believes that "socialism must be destroyed to save modern civilization."

"Social Service,"[4] by Louis F. Post (author of "Ethics of Democracy"), consists of a number of essays and studies in the interrelation of producers and consumers in modern civilization. Another little volume of essays on the same subject, handled however with a different style, is Mr. Edward T. Devine's "Social Forces."[5] These essays are based on editorials Dr. Devine has been writing during the past six years as editor of the *Survey*.

There is an increasing amount of fiction as well as philosophizing on the subject. In "An Anarchist Woman"[6] Mr. Hutchins Hapgood endeavors, so he tells us in his preface, "to throw light on what may be called the temperament of revolt; to show under what conditions, in connection with what personal qualities, the anarchistic habit of mind arises." In passing it should be said that a second edition of "The Spirit of the Ghetto,"[7] by the same author, being studies and sketches of types and character in the East Side Jewish quarter of New York, has been brought out with a number of striking illustrations. A novel entitled "The Socialist,"[8] by Guy Thorne, author of "When It Was Dark," treats of life in present-day England, showing how the desire for social reform has permeated all classes of Britain, from the ducal palace to the slums of London.

An authoritative edition, in English, of Kropotkin's "Great French Revolution"[9] has been brought out in translation by N. F. Dryhurst. Kropotkin's point of view, it will be remembered, is that of "one of the people." He is never tired of insisting that historians of the revolutionary period have largely, if not entirely, overlooked or neglected this phase of the causes leading to the great upheaval. The work is a long one, covering more than 600 pages, and is supplemented with an excellent index.

The valuable papers read at the National Conference of Charities and Corrections held at Buffalo, N. Y., in June, 1909, are contained in a volume of the proceedings recently published.[10] In this annual conference practically all active charitable workers, both official and non-official, throughout the Union are represented; and it is maintained by the editor of this volume of proceedings, Mr. Alexander Johnson, that no more timely nor forcible setting forth of the doctrines of the higher charity, and none more useful or suggestive to the social worker, has ever been given by the Conference to the nation than was given at Buffalo.

"How to Help"[11] is the title of a compact

[1] The Substance of Socialism. By John Spargo. New York: B. W. Huebsch. 162 pp. $1.
[2] Evolutionary Socialism. By Edward Bernstein. New York: B. W. Huebsch. 224 pp. $1.
[3] The Menace of Socialism. By W. Lawler Wilson. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 520 pp. $2.
[4] Social Service. By Louis F. Post. New York: A. Wesels. 361 pp. $1.
[5] Social Forces. By Edward T. Devine. New York: Charities Publication Committee. 226 pp.
[6] An Anarchist Woman. By Hutchins Hapgood. Duffield & Co. 309 pp. $1.25.
[7] The Spirit of the Ghetto. By Hutchins Hapgood. Funk & Wagnalls. 312 pp., ill. $1.25.
[8] The Socialist. By Guy Thorne. Putnam. 360 pp. $1.35.
[9] The Great French Revolution. By Prince Kropotkin. Putnams. 610 pp. $2.25.
[10] Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at Buffalo, N. Y. Edited by Alexander Johnson. 604 pp. $2.
[11] How to Help. By Mary Conyngton. Macmillan. 367 pp. $1.50.

manual of practical charity prepared by Mary Conyngton. The book is designed to meet the needs of busy men and women who feel responsibility for meeting the appeals of those in want, and of both volunteer and professional workers in the charity field. It not only states the general principles of relief, but shows how they are applied in definite cases and summarizes helpful suggestions derived from broad experience in charitable work.

ECONOMIC AND INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS

Mr. James O. Fagan's "Labor and the Railroads"[1] directs our attention to the fact that most of the literature on the American railroad situation as a feature of our industrial life has practically ignored the point of view of the railroad employees themselves, 1,700,000 of whom receive forty-two cents in wages out of every dollar that the railroads earn. Mr. Fagan is entitled to the thanks of the American public for such light as he has been able to throw upon the opinions and policies of the railroad employee.

In connection with the current discussion of the proposition for a central bank in the United States Mr. Robert Emmett Ireton has performed a useful and needed service in bringing together within the compass of a single small volume[2] answers to such leading questions as, What is a central bank? What has been the experience of foreign countries? Would a central bank be a good thing for the United States? What do American bankers think of the scheme? and, What position has been reached by public opinion in the present discussion? Mr. Ireton has had many years of experience as a writer on the financial press of New York City, and a cogent article from his pen on the subject of a central bank appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for January, 1908. He believes that the principle of the central bank is the true one, and that it is possible to make a practical adaptation of it to our American system, but that there must be the fullest assurance of freedom from control by "scheming politicians and financiers."

POPULAR SCIENCE

Prof. Percival Lowell's books on astronomy have been more popular than many novels. His creative imagination so generally receives scientific confirmation, and his style is so lucid, that there is a fascination about all his astronomical treatises. "The Evolution of Worlds,"[3] which has just come from the press, is based on a university course of lectures delivered last year before the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. It considers the birth of a solar system, all the planets of our own system, the formation of worlds, the life history of a planet, and the death of a world. The illustrations are chiefly from new photographs, although there are many diagrams and charts.

A scientific treatise which reads like a fairy tale is Henry C. McCook's "Ant Communities and How They Are Governed."[4] These little insects are considered in this volume as social animals. The author, calling his work "a study in natural civics," analyzes the communal life of the ant and demonstrates the fairness and accuracy of their reputation for wisdom. There are many illustrations and diagrams, one of the most suggestive of which we herewith reproduce. Incidentally, it is interesting to note the fact that it is now more than thirty-two years since Mr. McCook published his first observations of American ants.

EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

The reports of the National Commissioner of Education[5] are becoming year by year more interesting. One reason for this is the fact that it is now possible to issue the first volume

ANTS AT PLAY

(An illustration from Henry C. McCook's "Ant Communities and How They Are Governed")

of the annual report as early as the first week in December next following the closing of the fiscal and scholastic year to which it relates, while the second volume, including the statistical tables, is promised for the first week of the next following month of March. In years past the long delay in the printing of this report made much of the material that it contained practically obsolete by the time that it was put in the hands of the reader. Commissioner Brown is entitled to great credit for bringing about this very desirable change in the publication system of the Bureau, as well as for the up-to-date survey of education throughout the world which is an annual feature of his report. The most cursory perusal of the educational record of the past year in the United States discloses the growing importance of educational interests in this country and their close relation to the country's economic and commercial interests. The past year was one of remarkable progress in all forms of educational activity, and it is

[1] Labor and the Railroads. By James O. Fagan. Houghton Mifflin. 164 pp. $1.

[2] A Central Bank. By Robert Emmett Ireton. New York: Anthony Stumpf Publishing Company. 216 pp. $1.50.

[3] The Evolution of Worlds. By Percival Lowell. Macmillan. 262 pp., ill. $2.50.

[4] Ant Communities and How They Are Governed. By Henry C. McCook. Harpers. 321 pp., ill. $2.

[5] Report of the Commissioner of Education. Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office. 598 pp.

well that there is a bureau at Washington equipped to follow and record the various manifestations of this activity.

Dr. Rudolph R. Reeder is the successful superintendent of the New York Orphan Asylum now located at Hastings-on-Hudson. Dr. Reeder's experience in the conduct of this institution ought to be worth something to the managers of other orphanages, for there has been developed at Hastings during the last few years one of the best examples of the cottage system for the care of orphans to be found anywhere in the world. But the things that Dr. Reeder and his associates have learned about children are of interest to the general public as well as to the managers of orphanages. This consideration has induced Dr. Reeder to publish some of the results of his experience in a book entitled "How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn."[1] The principles and methods of education developed and followed at the Hastings institutions are many of them applicable not only to orphan children but to children in every walk of life. Some of Dr. Reeder's chapters give a new meaning to child training and illustrate in a vivid way the importance of education outside of books. The revelation that is made of institution life will surprise those readers who have been familiar with the older types of asylums and "homes," but the New York Orphan Asylum under Dr. Reeder's management is a distinct departure from the traditional asylum. That, however, is another story.

Many pedagogical principles that are so clearly illustrated from living examples in Dr. Reeder's book are scientifically developed by Prof. M. V. O'Shea, of the University of Wisconsin, in a recent volume on "Social Development and Education."[2] In the first part of this work the author describes the typical attitudes which the child tends to assume toward the persons with whom he comes into contact in the ordinary situations of life, and explains these attitudes in view of certain fundamental principles of mental development. In the second part the author outlines a plan and method of education designed to make the individual socially efficient. He describes his own point of view as that of a naturalist rather than that of a logician or philosopher, the problem before him being, What *can* we do in social training considering the nature of the individual and his social needs, rather than what *ought* we to do viewing the matter from an ideal standpoint?

The second volume published as a result of the Backward Children Investigation conducted for the Russell Sage Foundation is "Laggards in Our Schools,"[3] by Leonard P. Ayres. Broadly speaking, this volume embodies the results of an investigation into the problems of those children who, while perhaps not actually defective in body, mind, or morals, are nevertheless classified as "backward," since they do not keep up in their school work with their normal fellows. The investigation was begun in 1907, and a report of the study in so far as it related to the New York schools was submitted to Superintendent Maxwell and published by him as a part of his annual report for 1908. The most significant of the findings of the investigation are: (1) That the most important causes of retardation of school children can be remedied; (2) that the old-fashioned virtues of regularity of attendance and faithfulness are major elements of success; (3) that some cities are already accomplishing excellent results by measures that can be adopted by all; and (4) that relatively few children are so defective as to prevent success in life.

The bearings of school life upon moral training are admirably summarized by Prof. George Herbert Palmer in the Riverside Educational Monographs, under the title "Ethical and Moral Instruction in Schools."[4] Professor Palmer urges that when ethical instruction is undertaken in the schools it should be pursued as a science, critically, and that the student should be informed at the outset that the aim of the course is knowledge, not the endeavor to make better men. Further, he would insist that the students themselves do the work; that they do not passively listen to opinions set forth by their instructor, but that they address themselves to research and learn to construct moral judgment which will bear critical inspection.

GENERAL LITERATURE

A second volume of the love letters of great men which are being brought out by the John McBride Company is entitled "Love Letters of Famous Royalties and Commanders."[5] It includes (among others) correspondence between Napoleon I. and Josephine, Marie Louise, and the Countess Walewska; George IV. and Mrs. Fitzherbert; Von Moltke and Mary Burt; Henry VIII. and four of his wives; Mary, Queen of Scots, and Bothwell; Nelson and Lady Hamilton; and Lafayette, Cromwell, and Raleigh and their wives. The selection of the letters, as in the preceding volume, is by Lionel Strachey and there are descriptive prefatory sketches by Walter Littlefield.

A collection of psychological studies grouped so as to fall under the heads: "Studies of Primitive Man," "Studies of Modern Man," and "Studies of Truth and Suffering," have been brought together under the general title "Echoes of Myself,"[6] by the Russian exile-revolutionist, Ivan Narodny. These stories, which are pathetic and rather impressive in their style, the author has subtitled "Romantic Studies of the Human Soul."

A new work of reference, entitled "The Best of the World's Classics,"[7] which has been issued under the editorship of Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, comes to us in ten volumes. The work of 220 authors is represented in these volumes, which consider only prose.

[1] How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn. By Rudolph R. Reeder. New York: Charities Publication Committee. 246 pp., ill. $1.25.

[2] Social Development and Education. By M. V. O'Shea. Houghton Mifflin. 561 pp. $2.

[3] Laggards in Our Schools. By Leonard P. Ayres. New York: Charities Publication Committee. 252 pp., ill. $1.50.

[4] Ethical and Moral Instruction in Schools. By George Herbert Palmer. 55 pp. 35 cents. Houghton Mifflin.

[5] Love Letters of Famous Royalties and Commanders. Edited by Lionel Strachey. John McBride Company. 361 pp. $2.50.

[6] Echoes of Myself. By Ivan Narodny. New York: Published by the author. 231 pp., ill. $2.

[7] The Best of the World's Classics. 10 vols. Edited by Henry Cabot Lodge. Funk & Wagnalls. $7.50.

The American Review of Reviews

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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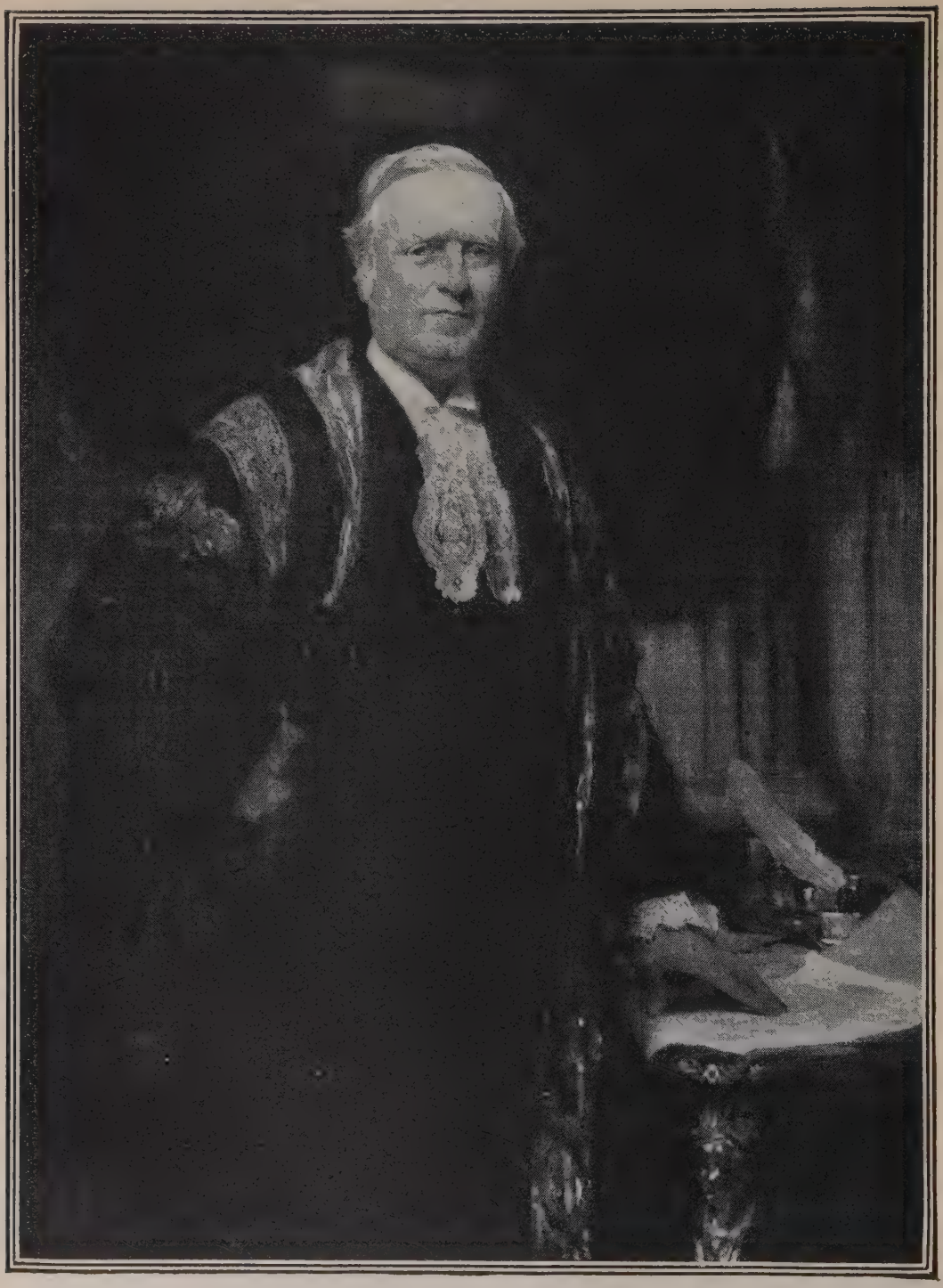

MR. ASQUITH, THE BRITISH PREMIER, IN HIS ROBES OF STATE

(The Right Honorable Herbert Henry Asquith, whose ministry has just been sustained at the polls, although by narrow majorities, is known as one of the keenest legal minds of Great Britain. This portrait is reproduced from the painting by Mr. S. J. Solomon, R. A.)

THE AMERICAN

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Tuning Up the Republican Orchestra

The Republican party usually composes its differences in the face of an approaching election. A few months hence Congress will have adjourned and conventions or primaries all over the country will be selecting candidates for Congress. In a good many States also Governors and State tickets are to be chosen. Members of Legislatures will be elected in several States that will choose United States Senators. From this time forth one is likely to hear a little less about "insurgents" and "regulars." President Taft has declared that he considers himself commander-in-chief of the Republican party and that a present evidence of good party standing will be to come peaceably into the camp where he has pitched his tent and flung his standard to the breezes. This does not seem to be a painful thing for any of the leaders to do. There have been some sharp differences, but they are not beyond hope of reconciliation. To read the so-called insurgent Senators and Representatives of the Mississippi Valley out of the Republican party would bring crushing defeat and rebuke at the polls in November. The Congressional Campaign Committee made a false start some weeks ago; but they will not continue to attack fellow Republicans in their home States. Speaker Cannon, on Lincoln's Birthday, eulogized President Taft. All the old leaders are suddenly praising Roosevelt, too, and preparing to welcome him when he returns in June. Every effort will be made to give the Republican party a tone of orderly progress. There will be philosophical explanations of the need of team-work and party regularity in general; but there will also be praise for men so full of zeal for the best welfare of the party and of the country that they are sometimes impatient of restraint and adopt insurgent methods as respects particular measures, working always, however, inside the ranks of the "Grand Old Party."

The Tariff Makes Some Discord

The tariff question is one that will not wholly relapse into quietude. There are some good things about the Payne-Aldrich tariff; and the present law is the reflex of the conditions under which it was worked out and enacted. There is no reason at this moment for any excited arguments about the tariff. Behind the scenes the Democrats were almost as responsible as the Republicans for the shaping of the present schedules. America is gradually getting ready for a scientific, non-partisan readjustment of the tariff, schedule by schedule, perhaps upon a plan of sliding-scale reductions, that will avoid abrupt changes and save business from rude shocks. There are many Republicans who think Mr. Taft needlessly aggressive in praise of a tariff which he did not make, and which those most responsible for making have regarded as very far from being ideal. Mr. Taft in his well-rounded and admirably phrased Lincoln's Day speech at New York spoke in terms of strong defense, from many standpoints, of this new tariff law. He explained that he is already using the board of tariff experts to collect material with a view to future tariff revision. And it is highly desirable that a board of experts should be doing such work. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that the clause, as adopted by the Senate, authorizing this kind of inquiry, was stricken out in conference committee. In short, Congress decided that such broad inquiry was not to be undertaken by the tariff experts who were to aid in the enforcement of the maximum

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PRESIDENT TAFT AS THE GREAT HARMONIZER
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)

and minimum provisions. What Mr. Taft is doing may be commendable in itself, but it does not follow that he should assign the praise for his good work to the law-makers who attempted to prevent his doing this very thing. He should ask legislative sanction.

Protectionism at Its Highest Point

The real truth about the present tariff cannot be suppressed, and the facts may be known and read of all men. We are a high-protectionist country, and the Payne-Aldrich high-tariff wall, as seen from some distance along the horizon, is so nearly like the Dingley tariff wall in its average height and in the undulations of its sky-line that to the foreign observer the general effect is unchanged. We are at the very acme of our protectionist period. There have been hundreds of changes of a detailed sort. When reclassifications are taken into account, the best figures we have been able to obtain would show that the average customs tax upon dutiable articles is slightly higher now than it ever was before. Many of the minor changes made were in the nature of an improvement. The great fact that confronted the two houses of Congress was that there was entirely lacking in this country at the present time any really strong and effective demand for a change of tariff policy. The South has become a hopeful and developing region of varied industries, and in practical attitude is intensely Protectionist, though not liking the doctrine as a tenet. In the Middle West there is a sentiment, led by men like Senator Cummins, favorable to a real and appreciable tariff reduction and demanding a simpler and better sort of tariff system from beginning to end; but protectionism holds its place as a doctrine. There are men like Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, who have been working for the creation of a scientific method of getting at the problems of tariff reconstruction. But in a matter like tariff revision, involving hundreds of different interests, Congress is like-

ly to yield to the major pressure; and it was the major pressure that produced the Payne-Aldrich law. That law cannot be changed materially for some years to come. Business is adjusting itself to the new law very comfortably. The Democratic party is not entitled to win a victory in the Congressional elections this fall upon the strength of its having a better tariff policy than the party in power. The Democratic party, as a matter of fact, has no tariff policy of any kind. It is not held together as a party by reason of its having any unity of opinion upon economic subjects. To assert that it has a tariff policy would be to make a false pretense.

Indiana and the Tariff

The Republicans can afford to be entirely free from intolerance among themselves respecting differences of opinion about the tariff. It would be ridiculous, for example, for Republicans who supported the tariff bill to invade Indiana this year in an attempt to embarrass Senator Beveridge in his campaign for re-election, merely because his judgment and conscience led him to vote against the present tariff law. He was identified with proposals for certain tariff reforms and improvements, particularly a tariff commission. The new tariff law was bound to be enacted in any case; and when the conference committee struck out the significant clause in that section of the bill which Senator Beveridge had drafted he was quite justified in making his protest by voting against the bill. Thousands of business men who had selected Senator Beveridge as their spokesman worked hard to secure a formal tariff commission. They all agreed finally to accept a paragraph in the act which would authorize the President to appoint an expert tariff board to investigate tariff subjects broadly, with a view to future legislation, as well as to advise the President regarding the enforcement of the maximum and minimum arrangement. This paragraph was accepted by Senator Aldrich and adopted by the Senate. But it was emasculated in conference committee. Senator Beveridge had the approval of the Republicans of his State in the course that he pursued. The sincerity and frankness of men like Mr. Beveridge are among the chief assets of the Republican party. His re-election to the Senate is assured in case of a Republican Legislature. His strength with the people of Indiana, on the other hand, will be one of the principal factors in the fight for a Republican Legislature. An attempt to force down the throats of the Republicans of Indiana, under these circumstances, an extravagant eulogy of the Payne-Aldrich tariff on the part of leaders claiming to represent Republican orthodoxy could only seem to mean a willingness for reasons of their own to give the State to the Democrats this fall.

A Good Year for Independent Men

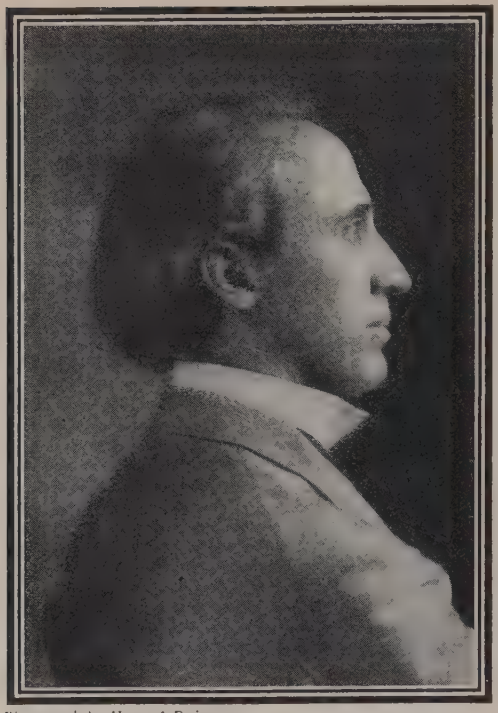
In short, Republicans all the way from the Alleghanies to the Rockies are highly disposed this year to encourage freedom and sincerity of utterance; and they prefer leaders of the independent sort, even though branded as "insurgents," to those whose credentials bear the "O. K." of party leaders at Washington, but who are not themselves essential in the process of shaping public opinion. The country is not in a very strong partisan mood. It wants men who think for themselves, study questions on their merits, and speak their own convictions rather than men who are merely members in good and regular standing of a political organization, or who are, behind the scenes, agents either for a political machine or for private interests. The party lash frightens nobody this year.

Another Term for Taft

The Republican organization was never more busily engaged in the game of national politics than now. It wishes to win the Congressional elec-

PRESIDENT TAFT BRINGING THE INSURGENTS BACK TO THE RESERVATION

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

SENATOR DICK, OF OHIO

(Whose seat is likely to be contested)

tions this coming fall, and it also wishes to win in the Presidential elections of 1912. Further than that, it wishes to make a success of the Taft administration, and to make sure not only that Mr. Taft shall be renominated but also re-elected. All the tendencies of our political life now call for a two-term incumbency. President Cleveland intended to be a one-term President, but conditions made his renomination inevitable. Mr. Harrison, like Mr. Cleveland, was renominated for a second term, though, also like Mr. Cleveland, he was defeated in the election. Mr. McKinley was renominated under conditions that made opposition impossible. In Roosevelt's first year of the Presidency, and even in his second and third years, the elements of opposition to his nomination in 1904 were so powerful that the chances seemed quite in favor of the coalition of leaders and interests determined to eliminate the Rough Rider from politics. It is unnecessary to recall the changed political conditions that cleared the way, in the winter of 1903-4, and made Mr. Roosevelt's renomination an easy certainty. The business of paving the way for Mr. Taft's renomination is going forward quite as actively,—now that he has been in office exactly one year,—as the same sort of business went on at the same stage of Mr. Roosevelt's Presidency, and in various earlier administrations. State by State all over the country the situation has been studied with careful forecast; and nothing is allowed to pass unheeded or uninfluenced. Old-line politicians are taking lessons.

Ohio and the Parties

The Ohio situation during the past few weeks has been studied with the utmost care. The Democratic Governor of Ohio, Hon. Judson Harmon, is a strong man, and he has been trying to reform some of the administrative services of his State quite in the spirit of Grover Cleveland or Samuel J. Tilden. He will be a candidate for re-election as Governor, and he is now looked upon as the most likely candidate of the Democratic party for the Presidency in 1912. The Hon. Wade Ellis, formerly Attorney-General of Ohio and recently chief assistant to Attorney-General Wickersham at Washington, has now been made chairman of the executive committee of the Republican organization in Ohio, and it will be his business to do every-

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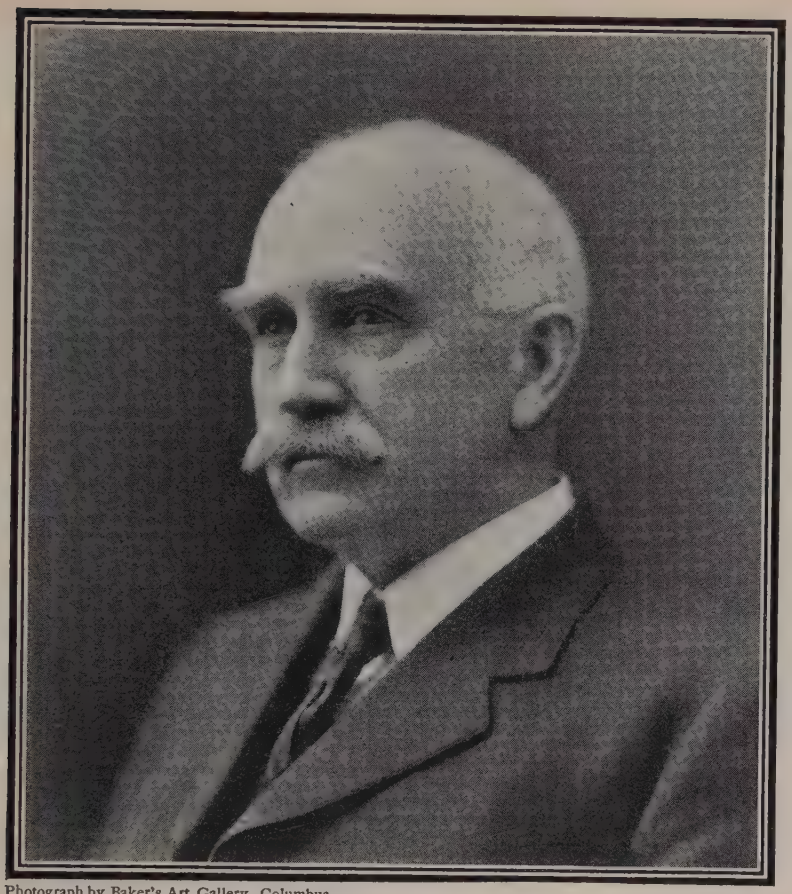
HON. WADE ELLIS

(Who will manage the Republican campaign in Ohio)



Photograph by Baker's Art Gallery, Columbus
GOVERNOR JUDSON HARMON, OF OHIO, A NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC FIGURE

thing in his power to help hold the State for the Republican party and the Taft organization. It has not yet been announced who will be the candidate for Governor against Mr. Harmon. The choice will be made by President Taft himself. There is also pending the question whether Senator Dick, of Ohio, is to be the Republican choice for another term in the seat which he took at Mark Hanna's death, or whether the place shall be given to a more pronounced Taft man.

A SERIOUS CASE FOR DOCTOR TAFT
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

Personal Phases of Ohio Politics

Mr. Wade Ellis, as assistant to the Attorney-General, has been in special charge of the prosecution of the so-called Beef Trust, and the Department of Justice does not willingly part with him. He is, however, to be retained as the Government's special counsel in that particular matter, and it is believed that this employment and repute as a "trust-buster" will not hurt Mr. Ellis in his rôle of Republican harmonizer and Taft representative in Ohio. No one accuses Mr. Ellis of going back home to promote his own political fortunes. Yet in the search for a possible winner against Harmon, or for a more advanced type of Republican for the Senate, conditions might force Ellis to take a nomination or to become a candidate. As against Mr. Dick for the Senate, it is still possible that the President's brother, Charles

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A REPUBLICAN CONFERENCE IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH

(Seated: Governor Hughes and President Taft. Standing (from left to right): Speaker Wadsworth, of the State Legislature; Otto T. Bannard, recent candidate for Mayor; Chairman Woodruff, of the State Committee; Chairman Griscom, of the New York County Committee, and Hon. C. M. Depew, United States Senator)

P. Taft, may come forward. When he withdrew in favor of Mr. Burton from his campaign for Senator Foraker's seat he did not deny that he might attempt to replace Senator Dick. Ex-Governor Herrick has also frequently been named as a possible candidate for the Senate. Mr. James R. Garfield may be urged for one place or the other. Governor Harmon is doing his reform work in the face of a Legislature and State administration otherwise Republican, excepting the State Treasurer. The Republicans are trying to outbid him as a reformer, but an impartial public opinion seems to award him the palm. If Ohio should elect a Republican Governor and Legislature under present conditions it would be deemed a great victory for President Taft.

New York also a Battle-ground

In the State of New York big fires have been lighted already under the political kettles, and they will be boiling violently within another month or two. President Taft is taking the closest interest in the politics of the Empire State. Mr. Herbert Parsons has retired from the chairmanship of the Republican Committee of New York County, and the Hon. Lloyd Griscom has been put in his place. Mr. Griscom, formerly a Philadelphian and recently our Ambassador at Rome, is a newcomer in New York City, but an active and agreeable gentleman who will doubtless make his mark in metropolitan and State affairs. Governor Hughes, who could have the nomination for a third term, refuses to take it, on private and personal grounds, and the question of a Republican candidate for the Governorship is one that every leading Republican in the United States, Mr. Taft as much as any one else, is earnestly considering. The situation is rendered not less difficult by the belated exposure of certain bribery transactions at Albany, which might prove, for campaign purposes, injurious to the party in power. Probably the question that politicians of all grades and classes, of all parties, and in all parts of the country, are

most concerned about and are asking one another a hundred times more frequently than they ask any other question is, What will Roosevelt do when he comes home next summer? Even those party elements most opposed to Roosevelt are deeming it better to placate than to antagonize. Their sneers and their hostility, whether these have been open or somewhat veiled, are laid aside. They are preparing for an effusive and unanimous welcome. It is not proposed to allow Roosevelt to be the principal asset of insurgents or malcontents. If he should choose to go to the Senate in Mr. Depew's place it is intimated by the powers that make for regularity that this might be an excellent way to dispose of the most energetic personality of his generation.

No Anti-Taft Movement Probable

Meanwhile there are many allusions in the newspapers to a so-called "back from Elba" club which is preparing to push Mr. Roosevelt for the Presidential nomination in 1912. The whole thing would appear to be quite mythical. If there is any such movement its secrets are well kept. Even though the Congressional elections this year should go against the Republicans it would not follow that Mr. Taft's renomination is unlikely. The President handles large questions more easily than he does little ones. The briers grew all over his moral vineyard while he was taking months on his long tour of the West and South through the summer and fall. If he can overcome this roving instinct of his, and mature the habit he has begun to form of sweeping away small matters with rapidity and decision, he will soon find his troubles diminishing; and the country will then discover in him an efficiency which as yet has been somewhat in doubt.

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HON. FRANK HITCHCOCK, POSTMASTER-GENERAL

THE AFRICAN COMET

(Due to hit New York June 21)

From the *American* (New York)

One Term to Be Desired

Meanwhile, all observing minds must admit that a one-term arrangement for the Presidency would be a great boon. But four years is not long enough. A six-year or eight-year term, with no chance of a second consecutive term, would give a President freedom to do his very best for the country, with little thought of politics. It is not that our Presidents themselves are so tormented by ambition for a second term as that thousands of other people more or less affected by changes of administration are exerting pressure all along the line. An amendment to the Constitution fixing the one-term principle for the President,—perhaps changing the date for the beginning of the term, and also changing

somewhat the method of electing a President, might well be submitted to the States for their approval. Such a change would be much more valuable in our political life than the suggested election of Senators by popular vote, although there is also much to be said in favor of direct choice of United States Senators. Ask Indiana or Missouri, for instance.

Politics in the Post-Office

One of the things that would most readily and naturally follow the adoption of a one-term rule for the Presidency would be the placing of the great Post-Office Department on a business basis. Mr. Roosevelt's first Cabinet appointment (Mr. McKinley's Cabinet having been retained as a whole) was that of the Hon. Henry C. Payne, of Milwaukee, to be Postmaster-General. It would not be discourteous to the memory of Mr. Payne nor unfair to the methods of Mr. Roosevelt to say that Mr. Payne, who was a very prominent member of the inner circle of the National Republican Committee and who had been very close to Mark Hanna, was put in the Cabinet for political reasons primarily. The idea of appointing the best available man in the country, with a sole view to administering the business of the Post-Office Department, was not dominant in the selection of Mr. Payne. The circumstances under which Mr. Cortelyou subsequently became Postmaster-General, and under which for some time he held at once the office of chairman of the Republican National Committee and that of head of the postal service, are also well known. Mr. Taft has followed that example in appointing his campaign manager, Mr. Hitchcock, the chairman of the Republican National Committee, as Postmaster-General. And it is no secret that Mr. Hitchcock, more than anybody else in the Taft administration, is expected to give close attention to party political situations throughout the entire country with a view to Republican harmony and efficiency, and with a due regard for a smooth and unobstructed renomination of Mr. Taft in 1912.

Working Under Difficulties

Those who would venture to intimate that Mr. Cortelyou, Mr. Meyer, and Mr. Hitchcock have not been competent for the administrative and business duties of the office of Postmaster-General are ill-informed. Mr. Cortelyou and Mr. Meyer were remarkably well qualified for the work. They performed their duties with great industry, with real public spirit, and with intelligence and capacity. But at all times they had to deal with political considerations for which they were in no wise personally responsible, and which have somehow been built into our governmental system so that they affect one party as much as the other. Mr. Hitchcock had served under Mr. Cortelyou as Assistant Postmaster-General; and a man who could handle a national campaign as he carried on that of 1908, with system, precision, and a steady sense of the application of means to ends, could not be regarded as lacking in ability to put business system and efficiency into the great Post-Office Department of the Government. The trouble is that, quite regardless of what would be his own natural preferences, Mr. Hitchcock is obliged to play the rôle of a party adviser and manager while also carrying on the arduous work of his public office.

Conditions of the Postal Service

Meanwhile, it is a pleasure to say that in many respects the postal service itself has been growing more efficient. Not only are appointments made on merit in the filling of clerkships in the larger post-offices and in the railway mail service, as well as the carrier service, but the merit system has been practically extended to the appointment of postmasters in small places. It is the demand of the people, regardless of party, that the post-offices in their home localities be taken out of politics. The time is precisely ripe for a thorough reorganization of the post-office at the top. Under the present arrangement we have a Postmaster-General and four Assistant Postmasters-General. The work of direction and supervision is somewhat arbitrarily divided among these officials. The business does not properly focus anywhere. Ill-advised recommendations emerge from unknown subordinates in the offices of these Assistant Postmasters-General and work their way up to the top, where they are too credulously entertained by new Postmasters-General, who become the victims of false statistics,—precisely as Mr. Hitchcock and President Taft were victimized by the statistics, utterly fallacious and mistaken, that Mr. Taft set forth in his recent annual message when he discussed the cost of carrying newspapers and magazines to their readers. It is needless to blame Mr. Taft or Mr. Hitchcock; but they should demand a better system for giving them facts.

Business Reforms Demanded

As a basis upon which to deal with an alleged deficit in the postal revenues, these statistics were made the starting point for an inquiry before the Postal Committee of the House, under the chairmanship of Mr. Weeks, of Massachusetts. The committee held very patient and careful hearings in the month of January. It showed a high degree of intelligence, and listened to various publishers and others having special information. The time has come when the whole country will demand that the one great business department of the Government should be run in a businesslike way. Protracted studies by Congressional committees have pointed to this precise conclusion. It has been recommended that there should be a Director of Posts, immediately answerable to the Postmaster-General. The reform scheme would abolish the four Assistant Postmasters-General. In place of these there would be a group of bureau heads, perhaps seven or eight in number, representing a scientific rearrangement of the business and forming a postal council of administration working in constant touch with the Director of Posts. Until the post-office can be made a thoroughgoing business affair it will not be feasible to make any changes in rates or classification. If, indeed, it were put on a strict business basis there could be no need of advancing the cost to the people of the United States of any of the services that the post-office now renders.

CAN HE GET THROUGH?
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

Postal Banks and Other Things

One of the items selected by Mr. Taft in his program for immediate fulfillment of platform pledges was that of postal savings banks. It was generally agreed at Washington that this much-discussed project would be carried through Congress in the present session. The opposition to it was widespread and quite determined, and there may be some difficulty in maturing the bill before adjournment. Yet it is thought probable that the scheme will be adopted. However that may be, it must be agreed on all hands that if the Post-Office Department were as well organized for practical results as some of our large business corporations the friends of postal savings banks would have a stronger argument for their cause, while the opponents of postal savings banks would have much less reason for their fears. If the post-office were what it ought to be in a business sense its money-order business, postal notes, postal savings banks, and related functions could be made highly convenient for the masses of the people. It could give new uses to the free rural delivery service and add something to the revenues of the department, while encouraging rural thrift and helping the development of the country by increasing the volume of productive capital available for local enterprises and for sustaining the public credit by affording another market for the Government's 2 per cent. bonds.

A Parcels Post?

It is similarly true that a thorough business organization of the Post-Office Department would help to settle the question of a parcels post. We should hope to get a reorganization, county by county, of the fourth-class post-offices and the free delivery routes so that better practical results might be rendered for very much less cost. Then the question would come up on its merits whether or not the Government's great machinery for distribution should be made available, as in foreign countries, for the cheap carriage of parcels. It has been usually said that the chief opposition to a parcels post comes from the express companies. It would perhaps be more accurate to say that the chief opposition comes from retail traders who think that a cheap system of parcels post would help the business of the so-called mail-order houses at the

expense of local and neighborhood trade. In the end the thing that is for the benefit of the people will prevail as against conservatism. The proper sort of parcels post might be just as useful to nearby retailers as to those in distant places. It is evident that we shall not have a postal innovation of this kind until the subject has been very thoroughly worked out.

Postal Telegraph and Telephone?

At intervals for a great many years past there have been agitations in favor of the taking over of the telegraph service by the Post-Office Department, as in foreign countries. In several foreign countries the telephone service is also governmental and connected with the post-office. We are now looking on in this country at a great amalgamation of telegraph and telephone facilities. If the vast monopoly thus forming shows an enlightened spirit, the result may be an improved and cheapened service for the people, both of telegrams and messages by telephone. Such a monopoly would have to come under public regulation, and it would be especially adapted to the kind of oversight provided in the new federal incorporation bill introduced in Congress last month. The evolution of this great unified service of swift intelligence must require a considerable time. But ultimately it is not unlikely that a post-office department developed on thoroughgoing business lines may absorb the united telegraph and telephone service. All of this lies in the future, but it is well to look forward sometimes and consider our probable tendencies.

"Party Pledges" and Current Politics

Three months have now passed away of the first regular session of the Sixty-first Congress. In its special session, lasting from the middle of March until August 5, it was occupied almost exclusively with the revision of the tariff. That subject being out of the way for the present, there seemed an unusually good opportunity to achieve in the long regular session some notable legislation. The prospect, however, of putting any great measures upon the statute books has been steadily diminishing. Mr. Taft has been trying to arouse the Republican majorities in Congress to united action by sounding the slogan of "party pledges." When he is asked what he means by party pledges he refers to the latest Republican national platform, adopted at Chicago. Now it is quite true that some things in that platform represent mature and undeniable party opinion. But other things,—to some of which Mr. Taft points with particular insistence,—were inserted at the last moment by members of the Resolutions Committee at Chicago in order to placate a handful of people whose support was desired for something else.

Two More Undeveloped States

For example, one of the things that Mr. Taft has been pressing with the most urgent insistence is the immediate admission to Statehood of the two Territories of New Mexico and Arizona. A more undesirable proposition could not well be brought forward. There is not a man in public life in Washington, whether President, Speaker, or heads of the committees on Territories of the two Houses of Congress, who would think of favoring such a thing on its pure merits. They all apologize for it in private. Every opportunity for self-government that Arizona and New Mexico could reasonably wish for they already possess as Territories. And they are far from that condition of development which would justify their sending four Senators to Washington to help govern this great republic. Some ten years ago a so-called "omnibus Statehood bill" was moving swiftly toward the point of becoming a law. There was no opposition to it in the House; it was almost ready for passage through the Senate, and the President was prepared to sign it. It would have admitted what is now the symmetrical State of Oklahoma as two small States with a ragged, accidental boundary line separating them; and it would have admitted Arizona and New Mexico, both of which were in a condition of most scandalous unfitness. The entire business was an example of log-rolling; political trading; lobbying by mining corporations; railroad influence; Rough Rider sentiment,—in short, a throwing to the winds of regard for statesmanship and the wise making of history.

States Once Made Remain

To digress for a paragraph. Again and again this magazine has reminded the country that other acts of Congress, however reckless and foolish, can be repealed, but that the making of a sovereign State, once brought about, is a thing beyond the power of Congress to repeal or undo. Under our constitutional theory the actual child becomes the legal parent (and the real parent becomes the theoretical child) just as soon as the parent

CONGRESS
WELL LOOK THE PROVISIONS OF YOUR CONSTITUTIONS OVER FIRST
WE WANT TO COME IN THE UNION AS SEPARATE STATES
NEW MEXICO
ARIZONA
Goodwin

ON THE ANXIOUS SEAT
From the *Argus Leader* (Sioux Falls)

invests the child with certain attributes. It is our theory that the National Government is one of limited powers delegated to it by a number of pre-existing and indestructible sovereign States. It is now proposed, at this very session of Congress, to pass the magic wand over the desert sands of Arizona and over the adobe huts of the humble Spanish-speaking people of New Mexico. Then we shall have two more sovereign States able to assert that they have graciously yielded up some of their original and indestructible attributes of sovereignty. They will become full partners in that limited government at Washington which had bought them for a song from Mexico, and which ought to have dignity and firmness enough to keep them in their proper place of tutelage for perhaps forty years yet to come. The gentle reader who does not understand these things ought to be told that Statehood promises always bob up in platforms with a view to conciliating delegates in national political conventions. The pressure at the local end is more usually applied by the people who expect to get the seats in the United States Senate and by the interests that lie behind these aspiring persons.

How Oklahoma Was Made

But, to return to the narrative, it so happened that when the four-State omnibus bill was moving along, with nothing to obstruct it, there came about a vacancy in the chairmanship of the Senate Committee on Territories. An ambitious young Senator from Indiana, Beveridge by name, was appointed to that chairmanship, nobody supposing that the agreed program was going to be disturbed. But Senator Beveridge was not sufficiently impressed by the doctrine of "pledges" and "bargains." There were those who did not believe that the four-State program was a proper one, and the new chairman was advised to study the question on its merits. He studied it even more thoroughly than his advisers had done. And he proceeded to block the program. He found a ready and strong supporter in Senator Nelson, of the same committee. Other members of the committee came into line, and Mr. Beveridge gradually secured for his views the authoritative support of his fellow Republicans in the Senate, excepting for a few who were affected by particular arguments not related to the national welfare. Senator Beveridge and those who stood by him succeeded in compelling the two halves of the old Indian Territory to come together again, and brought them into the Union as the one fine State of Oklahoma, for which nobody in the years to come will have any apologies to make. Oklahoma may have tried some rather crude experiments in her constitution and her statutes, but she will be the peer of her immediate neighbors. This magazine has sometimes ventured a few words in recognition of the public work of the Senator from Indiana. The time will come, a few generations hence, perhaps, when the people of Oklahoma will get a true perspective on the history of their own commonwealth. They will then erect a statue to their real founder,—namely, the chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories,—who had not only the right sense of history and the large vision of the future, but who also had the firmness and the fighting power to carry his measure to completion.

A Plucky Man's Surrender

Up to this time Senator Beveridge has been able to resist the schemers who have been at work incessantly to bring in New Mexico and Arizona. Some of these people have wanted to control the taxing power in those Territories on account of their large mining interests. Others have had political as well as business motives. Democrats have been so sure that they could control New Mexico and Arizona as States that they have naturally wanted to bring them in by way of balancing the "cowboy" States of the Northwest, such as Wyoming, and Idaho, and Montana. They are much less to be blamed than the

Republicans. Mr. Roosevelt wanted to keep his promises to his Rough Rider friends, and felt that, since the admission of those States some day was inevitable, his administration might as well have had the credit. Mr. Taft has been touring those parts of our beloved country, has made promises even stronger than Roosevelt's, waves the Chicago party platform in the face of Congress, and supports the chairman of the National Republican Committee in the demand for admission in time to give the credit to the present Administration amply in advance of 1912. If this be plain speech, it is all faithful and true; and nobody who knows the facts will venture even a mild denial. On the main point, the chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories has now yielded to the Administration.

Who Will Be Senators?

The Territories of Arizona and New Mexico are going to be authorized to prepare constitutions, and to enter upon Statehood after the acceptance of their organic instruments. It has been the tedious task of the Senate Committee on Territories to get the tricks and schemes worked out of the bills as drafted for enabling acts. Among other things, Congress is likely to insist upon converting New Mexico into an English-speaking State, and even having English taught in the public schools. There will be an effort made to guard the public interest in lands and in other minor ways to minimize the calamity of adding to our forty-six States two more that are not at all prepared for the responsibilities of Statehood. But there will be no way to mitigate the objection of having four new Senators of the United States come from communities which have not as yet bred national statesmen, and which have little reason to be proud of those who will most eagerly seek the places in Washington.

The Railroad Bill

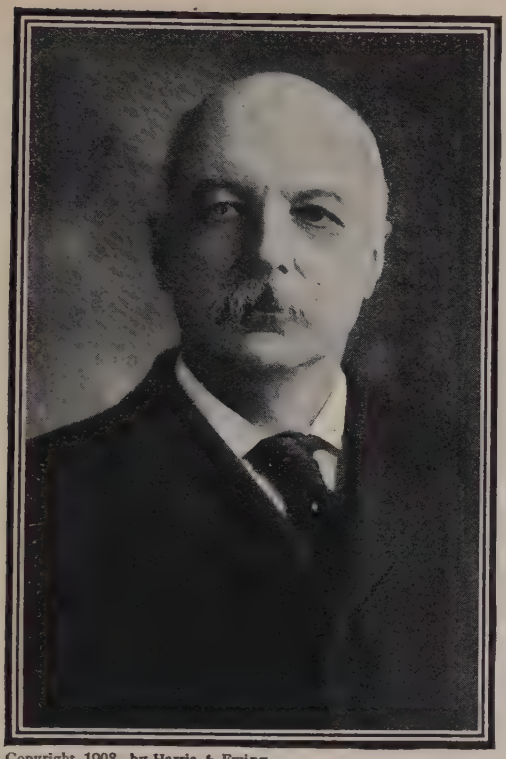
There is no great pressure on the part of the public for any further legislation affecting interstate commerce,—that is to say, regulating railroads. It is true, however, that the Republican National platform promised to do certain things in this direction and that experience shows that they ought to be done. There should be further authority in the hands of the Interstate Commerce Commission over rates and classifications, and some public control of the issue of stocks and bonds. It would seem advisable, also, to limit the power of the railroads to buy or hold stocks in other corporations. Furthermore, as respects prosecutions for violating the Interstate Commerce act, there ought to be some better distribution of authority and initiative between the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Department of Justice, while there is much to be said in favor of Mr. Taft's plan of organizing a distinct Court of Commerce to have jurisdiction in these transportation cases. There seems to be a fair prospect that some of these suggested changes may be adopted in the present session, but the business is not advancing eagerly.

Federal Charters

The Federal Incorporation act drafted by Mr. Wickersham and others under direction of the President (upon the outlines of which we made some comment last month) has been perfected in certain details and introduced in both houses of Congress. In each house it was presented by the chairman of the Judiciary Committee,—Senator Clark, of Wyoming, and Representative Parker, of New Jersey. As introduced, the bill concerns companies with a capitalization of $100,000 or more. It is not intended to apply to banks. It does not propose compulsory Federal charters. Its design is to permit companies doing an interstate business to incorporate under Federal law and to meet certain conditions which would,—

THE LITTLE BILLS: "If Papa Taft don't look out for us we'll never get past this gate dog."

From the *National Syndicate* (Baltimore)



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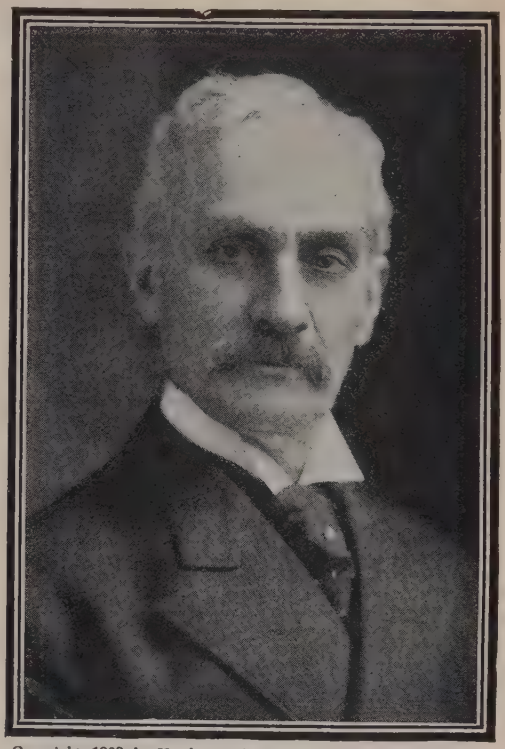
REPRESENTATIVE R. W. PARKER, OF NEW JERSEY



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SENATOR CLARENCE D. CLARK, OF WYOMING

in the case of their conducting their affairs with propriety and good faith,—exempt them from all practical danger of being prosecuted, whether under State or Federal statutes. Mr. Taft, who strongly urges the consideration of this measure, admits that it is not in the line of any specific platform pledge of the Republican party. It is, however, much more in accord with party pledges than either the corporation tax that was adopted in the short session or the income tax that is contemplated in case of the adoption of the impending constitutional amendment.

Waiting for the Court.

Platform pledges would seem to have required an amendment of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. Mr. Taft and his advisers have, however, decided not to advise any changes in that statute. It has been decided to await the decision of the Supreme Court in the pending Tobacco and Standard Oil cases. It is hoped that the court will give so broad and rounded an interpretation to the existing laws that Congress may know what to do on the one hand, while business men may know what to do on their part. At present Congress does not know how the law ought to be amended, if at all. Business men do not know how to carry on large industrial companies without incurring risk of prosecution. A great number of the large companies, of which the Standard Oil is a type, have been formed by bringing together a series of smaller companies engaged in the same kind of business. For various reasons of convenience these smaller companies have been kept nominally in existence, their stock being held in the treasury of the absorbing corporation or "trust." Under the Taft-Wickersham Federal Incorporation bill this form of organization would apparently be illegal. The Circuit Court has called this form illegal in the case of the Standard Oil Company. There lie ahead of us, apparently, some important changes in the structure of the great industrial companies, and in their relations to law and government. Their bigness will not be assailed, but they will not be permitted to use destructive or intimidating methods for the extinction of competitors. It will sometimes be difficult to draw the line, but in general the rules of conduct in such cases are not hard to determine. They could be found under common law with no federal statute at all.

Allaying Anxiety.

Apprehension and uncertainty about possible attacks upon large corporations have recently had a marked tendency to disturb the stock market, and there has been fear lest they might also retard the progress of actual industry. Mr. Taft has used various occasions, notably that of his speech at New York on Lincoln's Birthday, to assure the business world that there is no intention to pursue corporations in a hostile spirit. It is true, as he said, that "it rests with the National Government to enforce the law." And he went on to say: "If the enforcement of the law is not consistent with the present methods of carrying on business, then it does not speak well for the present methods of conducting business, and they must be changed to conform to the law." It should be remembered, though, that the present methods of carrying on business have been developing for a long period, and that this very law to which Mr. Taft refers has been lying unchanged and almost ignored on the statute books for many years, until recent agitations. If the modern ways of doing business are right, then why not change the law to make it meet actual conditions, instead of trying to change the structure of the business world to meet the arbitrary requirements of an old statute?

The Corporation Tax

The Internal Revenue officials throughout the country reported late in February that corporations, as a rule, had been dilatory in filing the statements required by the new federal tax law. In several of the large cities, however, it seemed probable that there would be few missing returns on the first day of March, the expiration of the term provided by the law for the rendering of these statements. The return through the mail of blanks which had been forwarded to the addresses of corporations by the Government officials indicated that many companies that had received charters probably never engaged in actual business. In the Territory of New Mexico, for example, the list of corporations chartered showed more than 26,000, but it is strongly doubted in the office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue if there are 5000 corporations on the actual list. On the whole, it seems probable that the income-producing quality of the new corporation tax has been greatly overestimated. It was also discovered last month by President Taft that no appropriation had been made by Congress to make effective the publicity feature of the law. No part of the $100,000 appropriated for the expenses of collection can be used to index and display the returns of the corporations and to make them accessible to the public. If no special appropriation is made by the present session of Congress for this purpose the element of publicity will be entirely eliminated from the operation of the law. Meanwhile, several cases intended to test the constitutionality of the tax are pending in the courts.

Governor Hughes and the Income Tax

Much time must elapse before the fate of the income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution can be known, but newspaper speculation as to the outcome cannot wait for legislatures to meet. Meanwhile, opponents of the measure were greatly encouraged in January by the special message which Governor Hughes sent to the New York Legislature recommending rejection of the amendment. Governor Hughes, who declared himself in favor of a federal income tax on principle, objected to the proposed amendment on the ground that it would confer on Congress the power to tax incomes derived from State and municipal bonds. It may be held, of course, that Representatives and Senators, jealous of the rights and privileges of their respective States, would never consent to the imposition of any federal tax that would work injury to State or local governments, but Governor Hughes was able to show that Congress has attempted to impose such taxes in the past, and at all events a power should not be conferred if it is not intended that it should be exercised. Federal Supreme Court decisions were cited by the Governor in support of his contention. While his argument was both cogent and lucid, its importance lay not so much in the soundness and force of its legal contentions as in the effect which such a deliverance in the form of a message from the Governor of the Empire State to the Legislature was sure to have upon the discussion of the income-tax within and without the State. It had been assumed from the outset that the State of New York and probably all of New England would reject the amendment. Other States, it was known, were waiting on the action of New York. The message of New York's Governor gave the opponents of the amendment throughout the country an argument which they could use with telling effect in their legislatures. Up to the present time, however, they have had little opportunity to use it.

Chances of Adoption

Only thirteen States of the Union have regular legislative sessions during the current year. In the State of Illinois, however, a special session of the Legislature has been called and will consider the income-tax amendment along with other propositions. Among the legislatures meeting this winter, those of Ohio, Illinois, Mississippi, Kentucky, Virginia, and South Carolina are expected to take action. Of these, Illinois and Ohio are counted as doubtful, if not positively hostile to the amendment. A majority of the State legislatures will assemble in January, 1911. Before that time it will be impossible to determine whether or not the amendment has any chance of ratification by three-fourths of the total number of States. Only twelve States are required to defeat it, and its opponents are now confident of having secured the opposition of at least eleven, while five others are counted on as more likely to reject than to adopt the amendment. The only State that has thus far taken affirmative action is Alabama, whose Legislature unanimously adopted the amendment.

A Possible Way Out

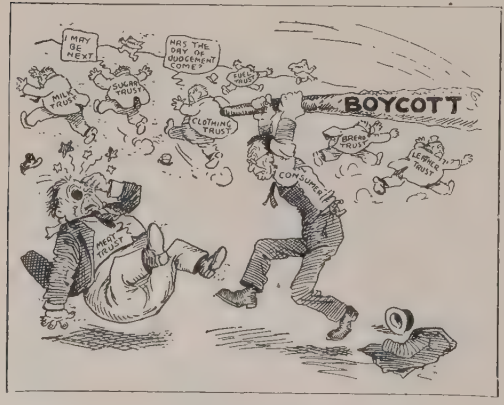
There is at least one course open to friends of the amendment which might greatly improve its chance of acceptance. The only change in the wording required to meet the objection raised by Governor Hughes is the omission of the phrase, "from whatever source derived," as applied to the individual incomes to be taxed. There is yet time for Congress to pass the amendment with those words omitted, and submit it to the States before the meeting of the legislatures in 1911. Such a course would certainly nullify the particular objection made by Governor Hughes and would probably unite in the support of the amendment all who think as he does that the federal Government should have the power to tax personal incomes when the exigency requires, but that the States and the governments created by the States should be clearly exempted from any possible injurious exercise of the taxing power by the Government at Washington. Governor Fort, of New Jersey, takes issue with Governor Hughes on the question of approving the proposed income-tax amendment, holding that Congress may be trusted not to lay any tax with the view of destroying the power or integrity of the individual States. The matter has also come up for discussion in the United States Senate, where Senator Borah, of Idaho, has cited constitutional authorities tending to show that Congress already has all the taxing power that any sovereign State could have, and that hence the language of the pending amendment can add nothing to that power. Senator Root, of New York, believes that the amendment should be adopted, and it is expected that he will address the Legislature of his State in opposition to the views of Governor Hughes.

Why Living Is Expensive

Both houses of Congress have undertaken to investigate the subject of current prices as bearing upon what it costs the ordinary family to pay its necessary bills for food, clothing, and other commodities. Congress will doubtless obtain some useful information. The Agricultural Department, from its own standpoint, is inquiring into the country's food supply, and its inquiry must cover cost of production and prices from the producer to the consumer. A generation ago the complaint always was that the railroads charged so much that the producer was kept poor and the consumer was kept hungry. It has become the fashion to shift the accusation from the railroads to the trusts. With a few people it is still a habit to lay it all to the tariff. As a matter of fact, the strain is principally due to stupendous changes in the habits of the people. Things that were the luxuries of the few, twenty or thirty years ago, are now the necessities of the many. If there is a meat trust,—and there seems, of course, to be some kind of combination of great packing interests,—its chief fault from the consumer's standpoint is that it does not go far enough. It ought to carry the full benefit of its facilities to the very door of the consumer. It ought to enter upon a campaign to teach the people that they need not buy sirloin steaks when the cheaper cuts of meat would be just as wholesome. If we are to have monopoly at all, we ought to enjoy its unobstructed benefits. We should also have a new kind of education dealing much more directly with the plain, practical problems of every-day life. If the tariff is amiss, let it be reformed. If the trusts are oppressive and make prices too high, let the remedies be applied. If the railroads are at fault,—they seem to be chief sufferers,—let producers and consumers join to get better rates. But the fundamental problem concerns the habits and customs of the people. Apart from that, there is no answer to the argument that the new flood of gold has made prices higher.

The Meat Boycott

In the case or meat, the price has risen to such an extent that the people have not been content to await the result of long-drawn-out investigations, but have taken a radical step on their own account. The popular protest against the high price of meat took the form of a boycott that rapidly grew to widespread proportions. The movement began in Cleveland, in the middle of January. Started by a factory foreman, the idea immediately spread throughout the city. Labor unions, clubs, and other organizations, as well as individuals, joined the movement, and in a few days a hundred thousand people had pledged themselves to eat no meat for a period of two weeks or thirty days. The boycott quickly spread from Cleveland to other cities, particularly the large packing centers like Chicago, Omaha, and Kansas City, and to cities of the East and the South, notably Boston, Pittsburg, Baltimore, Richmond, Memphis, and Atlanta. Buttons and placards were distributed bearing such legends as "I don't eat meat, do you?" and "No meat for mine until March 1." It is estimated that fully a million people were involved in the movement. The boycotters took the ground that by abstaining from meat for a time they could not only administer a rebuke to the "meat trust," but, by decreasing the demand, force down prices. These results were in a measure accomplished, locally and temporarily. In certain localities retailers cut their prices as much as 50 per cent. in order to get rid of their stock. Some dealers even shut up shop altogether for the time being. But the producers and packers promptly reduced their shipments of beef to the boycott centers, adjusting the supply to the decreased demand and keeping up the former high prices, in some cases even raising them, to make up for diminished sales. An unlooked for result of the decreased business was the curtailment of help, packing houses discharging some of their drivers and retail dealers dispensing with the services of employees. Another natural result of the boycott was the increased consumption of fish and vegetables, and the appearance of meatless menus at many private tables and public restaurants. Owing to the public interest in the subject of our meat supply at the present time, we have secured for this number of the REVIEW (page 308) an informing article on the beef industry, by Mr. Walter C. Howey, of Chicago, dealing with the various processes of beef in its course from "the hoof" to the table of the consumer, which will well repay a careful reading.



THE WORM TURNS

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)

Business Reaction Improbable

In mid-February, just as in August, the curve of business activity swings low, customarily. Last month the question was raised whether this business slackening could be considered unseasonable. President Earling, of the St. Paul Railroad, reported some cancelling of orders by merchants in the Northwest. Since the state of trade had been improving in nearly every important line with steadiness for about two years, this aroused many more special reports from different sections. One of these came from President Hughitt, of the neighboring Chicago & Northwestern Railway, who found nothing backward in his territory. Most of the reports reflected quiet, but optimism. The banks in the South and West were experiencing good demands for money. Indeed, unusual stores of cotton and grain are being held by the farmers of those sections, and the local supply of money to finance their holdings has been ample. The bank clearings for the whole country were heavier in January than for any preceding month in the history of the United States. In New York City the transactions in stocks and bonds call for checks of inordinately large amounts, not representative of trade in general. But even outside of that city the increase in clearings was 14 per cent. over January, 1909; 27.3 per cent. over January, 1908, and 8.8 per cent. over the busy month of January, 1907. All but nine cities out of the 132 showed gains over the corresponding month of last year. Contrariwise, there was 10 per cent. less building under way than during the very active January of

1909. And although pig iron production fell only 1 per cent. from the high record of December, the inquiries which would mean production for the next three months were falling off. Such conflicting figures support the widespread opinion that American business men, although they see no definite check to prosperity ahead, are puzzled by the recent severe break in the prices of standard stocks, and have become accordingly cautious.

Stocks, Trade, and Railroads

On February 8 the average price of representative railroad stocks got down to $119 per share. In the autumn the price had been $134. Most of the difference had been marked off just preceding February 8. To this heavy break in prices, covering a theoretical difference in value for sixty stocks of more than a billion dollars, can be ascribed the immediate cause of merchants' and manufacturers' hesitation. To what a large extent these price changes are technical and financial, of more concern to investors than to the producers and distributers of American commodities, is explained on page 374. As to railroads, one condition weighs upon their profits much more directly than upon the earnings of those they serve,—namely, the "higher cost of living." This is a very real drain upon the net earnings of a corporation prevented by public sentiment or legislation, or both, from raising its rates to keep pace with its increased bills for everything, from paint to labor, of both of which, for example, the railroads are the largest consumers. Thus, the latest monthly earnings of the Atchison railway, although its "gross" was actually larger, showed a loss of more than a million dollars from the month preceding in "net," due to higher expenses. The same is true of the Northwestern, the Illinois Central and the Union Pacific, among many other representative companies. Thus for two years comparatively few new roads have been built or new cars or locomotives ordered. However, these conditions affect the owners of railroad stocks more than the shippers and travelers from communities already well served by railroads.

Exports and Crops

The broadest business viewpoint of all looks to the nation's productiveness, and to the ability of other nations to pay for their share of exports. Upon this fundamental ground the attempted comparison of 1910 with 1906 fails utterly. In every civilized nation money this year has been much "easier" than it was four years ago. Although there are tariff questions pending between Germany, Italy, France, and other countries, there is by no means such danger of war as has made itself felt in times not long past. For the United States the balance of trade, the excess of exports of merchandise over imports, is entirely too far below normal. It is only about six months, in fact, since the balance was the other way. Since then the excess of exports has not averaged one-fourth of the $100,000,000-a-month average during the end of 1907 and beginning of 1908. However, the basis of a trade balance rests upon crops. The crop outlook for the United States is very bright. This year's acreage is to be a large one. And no reader needs to be told that prices for farm products are high. The prospect for winter wheat is, perhaps, unprecedentedly favorable.

The Glavis Charges in Congress

The investigation by a joint committee of Congress resulting from charges in the so-called Ballinger-Pinchot controversy went forward last month with doors wide open to the public and upon a plan of the utmost thoroughness. After Mr. Glavis and others attacking the Secretary of the Interior had for some days been represented by several lawyers, it was desired by the committee that Mr. Ballinger should also engage counsel, so that the procedure on both sides might take the same course. Mr. Ballinger preferred not to be represented by Western lawyers, who might have land cases pending before the Department. By advice of President Taft, therefore, he obtained the services of a Tennessee lawyer, Mr. John J. Vertrees, who came into the case as an entire stranger, with a high professional and personal reputation. As an expert in the land laws Mr. Carl Rasch, formerly United States District Attorney in Montana, assists Mr. Vertrees. The attack upon Mr. Ballinger is principally represented by Mr. Louis Brandeis, a prominent Boston lawyer, who was at the start retained in the interest of Mr. Glavis, and of the charges which have been urged from week to week through the pages of *Collier's*. We can do no better than to remind our readers of the suggestions published in this REVIEW last month, to the effect that wise men might allow themselves to avoid a controversial attitude of mind in this whole affair until they were in possession of all the facts.

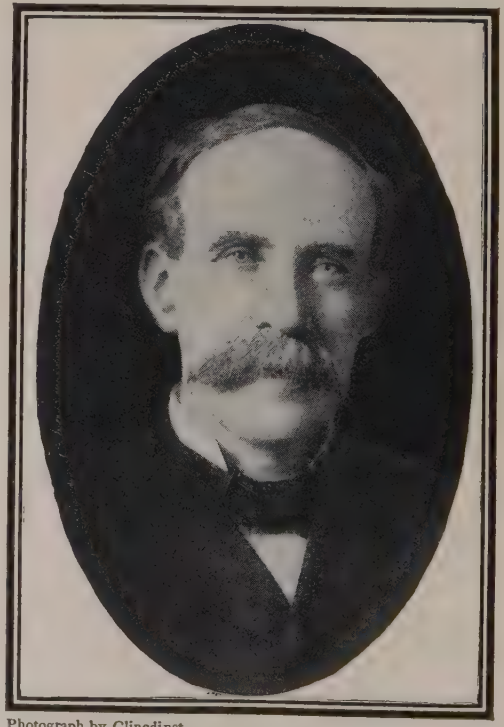
Photograph by Harris & Ewing

MR. LOUIS BRANDEIS

(Counsel for Mr. Glavis)

Pinchot on the Conservation Bills

Nine bills relating to the conservation of natural resources, prepared under the direction of Secretary Ballinger, were introduced in Congress on January 18. Mr. Pinchot, as president of the National Conservation Association, has issued a statement on these bills. The most important is the one that gives clear authority to the Executive to guard the public domain by withdrawal of lands. As reported by Senator Nelson, this bill ought to be promptly passed. It has the support of the Administration and also of Mr. Garfield, Mr. Pinchot, and the association they represent. The bill relating to coal and the one dealing with phosphate, oil, asphalt, and natural gas separate the surface of the land from the underlying minerals, provide for the disposal of minerals by lease and not by sale, are said to be modeled on Mr. Nelson's former bill, and are commended by Mr. Pinchot, who proposes desirable amendments. Mr. Pinchot commends the bill for the survey of railroad land grants, with suggested amendments. He criticises the water-power bill from several standpoints. Each of his criticisms is worthy of the most thorough consideration at the hands of the appropriate Congressional committees. It ought to be easily possible to pass a bill that would encourage the development of unused water powers, while retaining the Government's right at some future period to resume its control or make a fresh lease. Mr. Pinchot criticises that detail of the bill dealing with reclamation projects which would seem to permit the sale of water to any persons except actual residents and occupiers of the reclaimed land. He passes over all the other matters presented in the Ballinger bill regulating reclamation projects. Mr. Pinchot's discussion of this bill is not complete enough. His reasons for opposing the Ballinger bill for the sale of timber and timber lands are, however, clearly and strongly stated. This is Mr. Pinchot's own special subject, and his views upon it are entitled to the highest respect. He opposes the bill for the classification of public lands as failing to separate the surface from the underlying mineral. It is already plain that as president of the Conservation Association Mr. Pinchot can render the country a most useful service.



Photograph by Clinedinst

MR. JOHN J. VERTREES

(Counsel for Secretary Ballinger)

Seeking the South Pole

Next fall and winter will probably witness an exciting race between two well-equipped Antarctic expeditions, one American and one British, to "discover" the South Pole. Preparations for the British expedition, which is to be under the command of Capt. Robert F. Scott, of the Royal Navy, have already advanced far, and the British Government, as was noted last month, has granted $100,000 toward defraying the expenses of this enterprise. In the summer of 1901 Captain Scott led an Antarctic expedition, which was remarkably successful from the standpoint of scientific research. He intends to go over much the same route as that taken by Lieutenant Shackleton two years ago. The British plans had scarcely been published to the world before Commander Peary, in a speech last month at a remarkable testimonial given to him at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York City, announced that he would help send an American expedition to the Antarctic in the *Roosevelt,* the ship that took him to the far north. Commander Peary received an enthusiastic ovation when he declared that the $10,000 presented to him on that occasion would be deposited in a bank as additional contribution from himself toward fitting out the American South Polar expedition. In communicating this offer to the National Geographic Society Commander Peary made the one condition that the society itself raise $50,000 as its share of the undertaking. This condition has been accepted. Commander Peary does not intend to take part in the proposed expedition himself, but plans to place it under the command of Capt. "Bob" Bartlett, who accompanied him to the north.

Return of Dr. Charcot

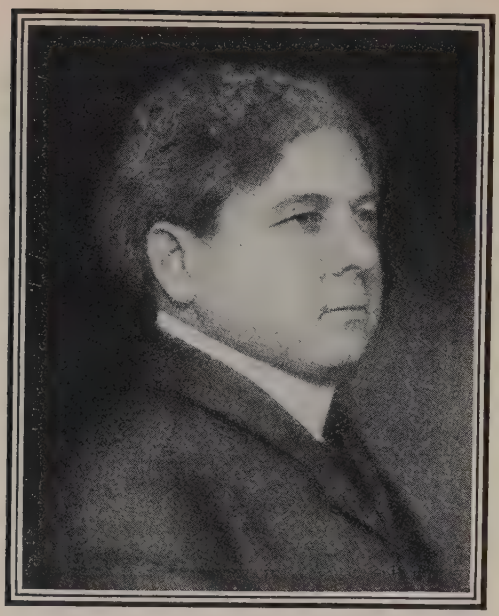
The American expedition, if all goes well, will start from the United States some time in the coming autumn. Coates Land, which is on the Antarctic "continent," south of Cape Horn, will be the starting-point. Leaving this region in February, 1911, it is hoped that in about one year the South Pole will be reached, possibly (to quote the good-humored irony of Lieutenant Shackleton) "to find the British expedition already there." By an interesting coincidence, just as the newspapers were announcing the friendly rivalry of America and Britain in this matter of South Polar exploration, a cable dispatch from Punta Arenas, the southernmost point of Chile, told of the arrival of Dr. Charcot, the French scientist, with his ship, the *Pourquoi Pas,* after more than a year's exploration of the Antarctic. Dr. Charcot left France in August, 1908, with his expedition, consisting of a number of experts in astronomical, meteorological, and biological science. Dr. Charcot himself is an expert bacteriologist. He reports having reached latitude 70 degrees south, to have discovered new land, surveyed coast lines, rectified old maps, and secured much new valuable scientific information.

Canadian Topics

The great development of the Canadian Northwest, with the consequent increase of the world's wheat crop, has been one of the most remarkable phenomena of the past two dec-

JOHN BULL EN ROUTE FOR THE SOUTH POLE HAS A VISION OF A RIVAL

From the *Times* (New York)



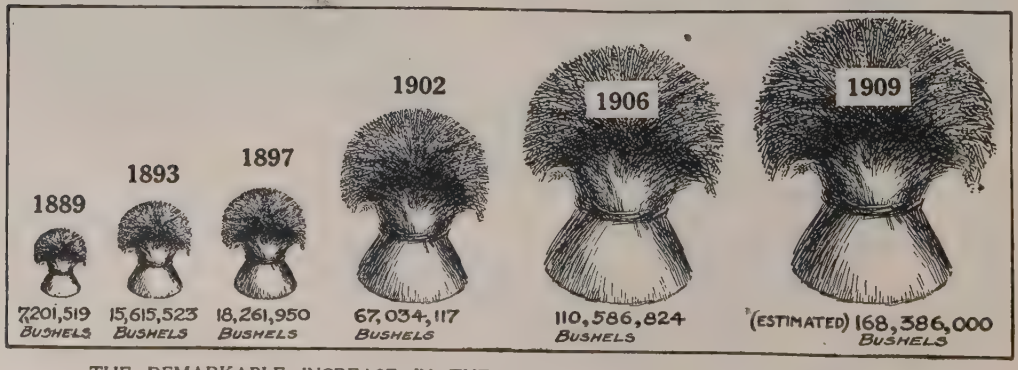
HON. RICHARD M'BRIDE, PREMIER OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

(The coming statesman of the Canadian West, who has recently been returned to power by large majorities)

ades. In the ten years ending last December the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta increased the area under cultivation from 2,000,000 acres to nearly 7,000,000. We reproduce on this page a striking diagram illustrating this fact from the *Monetary Times* of Toronto. The Dominion is very proud of its agricultural resources, and next of its progress in railroad building. According to a recent publication of the Department of the Interior at Ottawa, more than 1100 miles of railroads were built in the year 1909. Upon the first day of the present year it was estimated by the statistician referred to above, that there were 24,104 miles of railway in operation in the Dominion. Canada, as well as the United States, has a conservation problem, and she is facing this problem with vigor and far-sightedness. The Honorable Clifford Sifton, M. P., who is chairman of the recently formed Commission for the Conservation of the Natural Resources of Canada, has organized a field service which is at present inspecting the forests of the country. According to the estimate of the Census Bureau, the population of Canada at the beginning of 1909 was slightly over 7,000,000. A Canadian topic of particular interest to Americans last month was the first municipal election held in the city of Montreal under the system recently inaugurated, doing away with the Aldermanic Committee plan. Dr. Guerin, the new Mayor, a leading Catholic physician, was the nominee of the Citizens' Association, which for several years has been fighting the "graft" element of the city. All the members of the Council in any way connected with the old régime were defeated at the late election.

Politics and Industry in Newfoundland

After years of apparently fruitless negotiations it now seems as though the coming summer would witness a definite settlement of the vexatious fisheries dispute between the governments of the United States and Newfoundland. June 1 has been fixed as the date for the first meeting of the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, for the final adjustment of all differences between the United States and Great Britain growing out of the Newfoundland fisheries problem. Senator Root has been chosen to be American counsel before the tribunal. Most of us are wont to believe that the fisheries industry is the only one engaging the attention of Newfoundlanders. It is a re-



THE REMARKABLE INCREASE IN THE WHEAT YIELD OF CANADA SINCE 1889

markable fact, however, that during the past three years this North American possession of Great Britain has developed at a rapid rate, commercially and industrially. The value of the fishery industry for 1909 is reported as double that of the preceding year. During 1909 also there was opened on the island the Harmsworth Mill, one of the largest pulp and paper plants in the world. On January 26, the opening day of the winter session of the colonial legislature, all the local newspapers printed their issues on the first paper ever manufactured on the island from native stock. Early last year, it will be remembered, Sir Robert Bond, the Premier, resigned, and in the general election that followed in May there was a complete change of political supremacy, resulting in the elevation to the premiership of Sir Edward Morris. The mining industry of Newfoundland is being developed at a rapid rate. Statistics show a greater increase in value of minerals taken out in the past six months than in the two years preceding.

The New Law for Porto Rico

The bill embodying President Taft's ideas on the reforms necessary for government in Porto Rico was submitted to Congress on January 29. This measure, drafted by Secretary Dickinson after his recent visit to the island, is to be an organic law to replace the Foraker act. It provides for voluntary, individual citizenship on the condition that the applicant for naturalization can read and write, owns taxable property, or is a member of a firm that owns taxable property. The measure also provides for a Senate of thirteen members, eight to be appointed and five elected. The Legislature is to meet every two years, although elections are to be held once in four years. The Governor, under the provisions of the new law, will hold office at the pleasure of the President of the United States, without any fixed term, and all officials of the courts are to be appointed by the President. Other provisions of the bill are for a central bureau of health, a civil-service system, and a duty on coffee to foreign countries. The budget for the present year, the passage of which in preceding years has been obstructed and postponed to the last moment, was passed by the Legislature on January 29, on the fourteenth day of the session. Early last month the Porto Rico Association was formally organized by prominent business men of the island. The purpose is to "advertise Porto Rico, to secure markets for her coffee and fruits, and to serve as a medium for information, both locally and abroad."

The Presidential Campaign in Mexico

As the Presidential campaign proceeds in Mexico, slowly and, so far as the outside world is aware, without undue excitement, the American people, with an interest that is based on political, economic, and humanitarian considerations, watch and hope for the election of a worthy successor to Diaz in the Presidential chair in Mexico City. The present year is to be a memorable one for Mexicans. In June the Presidential election will be held. On September 15 General Diaz will celebrate his eightieth birthday, and, it may be safely predicted, all Mexico will celebrate with him. The very next day,—September 16,—the country will commemorate the one hundredth anniversary of Mexican independence.

Mexico Under Diaz

What is actually happening in Mexico under Diaz? Is it true, as set forth in a number of articles recently published in American newspapers and magazines (from one of which we quoted in our issue for November last), that the land is full of political unrest, riots, corruption, slavery, and political murder, with revolution and chaos to follow in the near future? General Porfirio Diaz came into the Presidency in 1877 and, excepting the four years from 1880 to 1884, has governed Mexico continuously and absolutely to the present day. His power originated in physical force and has endured by virtue of mental supremacy. He took up the management of a nation involved in revolution, yet endowed with a constitution granting liberty of life and property and a system of courts admirably planned to administer justice; a nation with little or no credit, inadequate transportation facilities, few industries, no prosperity, but with a potentiality in its mines, its lands, its rivers, its forests, sufficient to arouse enthusiasm in the most conservative. Commercially his control has brought remarkable results, a staunch credit, railroads, steamship lines, factories, irrigation, water-power, mining development, agricultural growth. Politically he has silenced revolutions and made progress toward putting into practice the principles of the constitution and the enforcement of the laws. Life and property are safe in Mexico to-day.

Mexico's Problems

A nation's growth and age come even more slowly than a man's. The maturity of Diaz the man must outrun that of his country. His mind foresaw this, and besides the results he has accomplished, political and commercial, he is to be credited with really noble efforts to pave the way for his successor. How difficult is his task can only be felt by those who know the life and thought and, above all, the hereditary character of the Mexican people. Diaz is sure that the spirit he has established will not brook from another the absolutism which he inaugurated and maintained, an absolutism no doubt just as essential in the early formative period as it is repugnant to the more developed character and mind of the nation. On the other hand, he remembers how little time and opportunity his people have had to learn self-government. The very element of his system which was so necessary in the constructive period has prevented the development of characteristics in his people which would solve the problem now confronting the country. At the same time no other man can wield the club he has handled so easily. The nation is not yet educated to democratic government, and yet it has passed out of the stage of one-man power. What is to be the compromise?

Slow but Steady Progress

There is among Mexicans an ever-growing demand for more congressional power, a more independent judiciary, and a general observance of constitutional rights, which, in Mexico, are as liberal as anywhere. Real popular education and the break-up of the present system of large land holdings are also demanded. That serious abuses exist cannot be denied. But Mexico is a land of promise, not yet a land of perfection. An illustration of how she is progressing may be found in the dispatch from Mexico City, given in the newspapers last month. Governor Landa of the Federal District, we are told, is preparing to erect modern tenements in the capital at a public expense of $8,000,000 (Mexican), the object being to improve the condition of the poor. The tenements will be rented and looked after by the district government. The proposed new buildings will be modern as to construction and sanitary equipment. The American people and Government are in full sympathy with Mexico's efforts to enlighten herself and to progress in the paths of peace.

The Situation in Nicaragua

Although the news dispatches from the seat of the civil war in Nicaragua have been rather confusing for some weeks, it became evident by the middle of last month that the revolutionists were winning. The two armies of General Estrada were advancing westward. It was reported that they had defeated the government troops in several engagements. Their object was to capture Managua, the capital, where Dr. Madriz, who was elected in December to succeed Zelaya, administered the government by military force. Two American war vessels, under command of Admiral Kimball, have been in the harbor of Corinto, Nicaragua's seaport on the Pacific, for several weeks in order to protect American citizens and American interests in the region. Whether there is to be any further service required of the American warships and marines depends entirely upon the character of the settlement which is made of the Nicaraguan dispute. While the civil war continues in Nicaragua, the Central American Peace Congress has been in session at San Salvador. It has adopted resolutions favoring the gold standard, a system of tariff reciprocity for the five republics, the unification of their consular services abroad, and the compulsory use of the metric system.

Building Warships for Foreigners

A most auspicious beginning has been made by American manufacturers in the business of building warships for foreign powers. We remarked last month that despite the charge made of South American hostility growing out of the State Department's attitude toward Nicaragua, Secretary Knox's Latin-American policy had been justified by its results. A striking illustration of this fact was furnished a couple of weeks ago by the announcement that at the very time when the course of the State Department toward Chile and Nicaragua was calling forth so much hostile criticism the Argentine Republic was induced to award to American firms contracts for the construction of warships to the value of $22,000,000. The contracts for building these vessels, which are to be of the *Dreadnought* class, were signed in London on February 5 between representatives of the Argentine Government and the president of the Fore River Shipbuilding Company, of Quincy, Mass. The ships will each be of 28,000 tons displacement, and must develop a speed of twenty-two and a half knots. The Fore River Company will build only one of

the ships. It has sublet the contract for the other to the Camden (N. J.) works. At the same time as the building of the battleships was authorized agreement was made to purchase a million dollars' worth of steel from American mills.

The Liberal "Victory" in England

Disappointment as to the present and uncertainty as to the future is the way a prominent English Liberal leader is reported as summing up the after-election feelings of his party. An equally unsatisfactory state of mind has evidently taken possession of the Unionists and the so-called Laborite group. The only political camp in Great Britain in which there is any degree of elation over the results of the general election, which ended on January 29, is that of the Irish Nationalists. The Liberal Ministry, in appealing to the country, asked and hoped for a popular verdict which would return them to power with a good working majority. The figures of the final count, however, give them but one vote more than their Unionist opponents,—274-273,—and make them absolutely dependent for the enactment of their extensive program into law upon the Labor members and the Nationalists. These two groups, it is true, almost always vote the Liberal way, or, to put it in other words, never vote with the Conservatives. Mr. Asquith, however, will have to satisfy these gentlemen in every case before the Liberal program can be carried to victory. The position of the Premier is well set forth by a cartoon from *Punch,* which we reproduce on this page.

THE "MANDATE" AS MR. ASQUITH VIEWS IT NOW

LIBERAL CHAMPION: "I asked for a charger, and they give me this!"

From *Punch* (London)

Unionist Gains Not as Expected

If the Liberals are disappointed at their reduced majority, it cannot be said that their Unionist opponents are any more satisfied. They completely failed to secure the large vote they expected. Basing their figures on the by-elections, and in view of the historic fact that for the last half century only one British Ministry has gone to the country for re-election and escaped defeat, the Unionists had been predicting the overthrow of the Liberals and their own triumph. The results, however, while showing considerable Unionist gains, have not nearly justified their expectations, and Mr. Balfour is reported to have openly admitted that his party would not willingly assume the direction of the government on such a slender majority as is now commanded by Mr. Asquith. The Parliamentary strength of the Irish party remains the same as before election, 82, of which 10 are Independents, followers of Mr. O'Brien, and opposed to the Redmond leadership. During the past six successive elections the status of the Irish group has remained practically unchanged. This prompts one of the Liberal English leaders to remark that "while the stable English vary at the polls, the fickle Irish remain invariably solid."

What Can the Liberals Do?

The final election figures, 274 Liberals, 273 Unionists, 82 Nationalists, and 41 Laborites, will give Mr. Asquith a majority of 124, always providing he keeps in line the Irish and Laborite members. What can he do with such a majority so constituted? When Parliament formally assembled on the 15th of last month it proceeded at once with the ceremonies of swearing in the members. This procedure continued until the 21st, when the King's speech was read before the new House of Commons. The ministry owes its rather precarious hold on life largely to the fact that the electoral funds have been quite exhausted by the recent election, making a second ap-

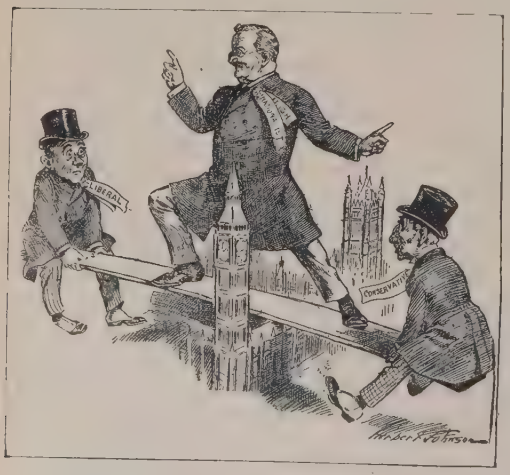
peal to the country out of the question just now, much as such an appeal might be desired to secure a more definite mandate from the people. It seems certain that a vote in the budget will be taken very early in the session and then immediate attention given to the question of the veto power of the Lords.

Strong Position of the Irish

That the Irish members realize their strength in holding the balance of power is clearly indicated by the "ultimatum" reported to have been delivered to Premier Asquith on February 11 by Mr. Redmond, leader of the Irish party. Mr. Redmond, who has just been re-elected president of the United Irish League, delivered his "ultimatum" at Dublin, upon the occasion of his election, in these words:

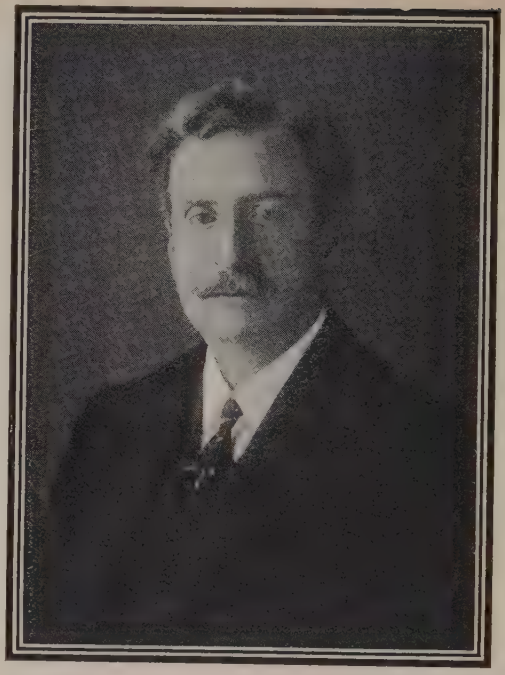
> Mr. Asquith is a man of his word, and I would not insult the Prime Minister by suggesting that he is likely to go back on his Home Rule declaration. For the government to pass the budget and postpone the veto question is a policy that Ireland cannot and will not approve, but if the Premier stands to his pledges he will have the support of the Irish party.

Later it is understood that Mr. Redmond gave the Premier assurance that the Irish members would "make no deliberate attempt to embarrass the government as in the matter of the order of dealing with the budget and veto questions." At the annual meeting of the Independent Labor party, held at Newport on February 9, Mr. James Keir Hardie, presiding officer, announced that the Liberal program was not radical enough to suit his party, the policy of which was "to sweep the Lords into oblivion at once." It should be added that the suffragette leaders have sent an open letter to the Premier promising for the present to "abstain from militant tactics" until the government has had a fair opportunity of stating its intention concerning "Votes for Women."



THE BALANCE OF POWER IN ENGLAND

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)



MR. JOHN REDMOND, LEADER OF THE IRISH NATIONALISTS IN THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

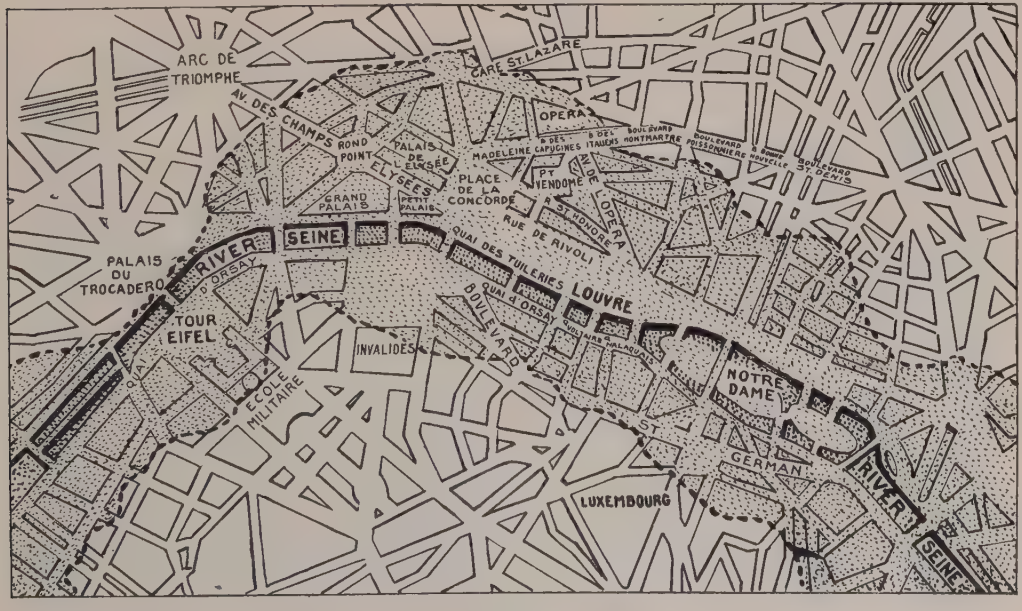
What Did the Election Decide?

It may be said the election has really expressed nothing clear or decisive as to public opinion regarding the three main questions before the electors: (1) Mr. Lloyd-George's "Socialistic" budget; (2) the conflict between the Lords and the Commons; or (3) Free Trade vs. Tariff Reform (Protection). It is taken for granted that the House of Lords will pass the budget, since, on the face of the election returns, the country decided against the Peers on this question. In order, however, to secure the certain support of the Irish in passing this budget, and in subsequent reform legislation touching the House of Lords itself, it is believed that the Chancellor will be obliged to modify the budget, probably omitting the whisky tax, which is obnoxious to the Irish. The reform of the House of Lords seems to be assured, both parties now supporting it. Conservatives of all shades of opinion and the

Lords themselves have already expressed themselves as willing to accept moderate changes at once in order to ward off more drastic reforms later. It seems likely that some sort of Home Rule measure for Ireland will be introduced in the Commons. The solid Conservative vote and some of the Liberal strength, however, is certain to oppose any such measure, and the attainment of Home Rule is therefore still an uncertainty of the future.

Good Record of the Last Parliament

Despite the bitter feeling stirred up by the recent election it seems to be generally admitted in England that the record of the Parliament just ended is a noble one for the number of worthy and useful measures it enacted into law. Radical reforms were effected in the military establishment of the Empire by the annual army act. Three significant laws affecting the navy were passed, all making for a united imperial sea power in which the colonies should eventually take part. The Irish Land act was a rather complex measure. Its net result was the appropriation on imperial credit of a large sum of money additional to the amount appropriated by the Wyndham act of 1903 to aid in the purchase of land by Irish tenant farmers. The Indian Councils act, by which it was hoped to alleviate discontent in India through giving the natives a greater share in the government, seems to have begun well. Good results also have already followed from that epoch-making statute accomplishing the federation of South Africa. In the line of "Social Reform" the record of the recently ended Parliamentary session was a noteworthy one. The inauguration of national labor exchanges was intended to deal with the unemployment question in a broad and progressive way. This system was put into effective operation on the first of last month, when 100 exchanges were opened throughout Great Britain. The object of these exchanges is not charity or relief, but to bring unemployed men and women into communication with employers desiring labor. Another important labor measure is the Trade Boards act. These Trade Boards are established to consider "any matter regarding industrial conditions in their trade upon reference from a government department and to report thereon." The last Parliament also passed Mr. John Burns's Housing and Town Planning act, which regulates "the construction of better dwellings for the poor and aims to wipe out overcrowded and unhealthy quarters in the cities by compulsory process." The entire number of laws placed on the statute books by the last Parliament was 49.



PARIS UNDER FLOOD

(The shaded portions of this map show sections of the city most seriously affected by the recent overflow of the River Seine)

THE GARE DES INVALIDES, ONE OF THE MOST FAMOUS BUILDINGS OF PARIS
(As it appeared on January 26)

The Siege of Paris by the Seine

Not since the days of the Commune, in 1871, has the French capital experienced such a week as that which tried its soul during the last seven days of the month of January. Paris has more than once in her history suffered from floods of a disastrous nature, but we must go back to the beginning of the seventeenth century to find record of an inundation as destructive as that which began on January 25. The waters of the River Seine had been rising steadily for several days. Finally they overflowed the banks everywhere in the city and, gradually spreading over the streets, penetrated into the sewers, subways, and cellars of buildings, until more than a fifth of the entire city was submerged. Unusually heavy rains in the northern and western provinces had extended over several weeks. The volume of water in the upper reaches of the Seine and in its tributaries was finally so increased by these rains that when the river reached Paris it attained a maximum of 30 feet above its normal height. The river system, including the Marne, Yonne, and Aube, of which the Seine is the outlet, drains a large portion of the north of France, and the provinces through which these rivers flow were, during the third and fourth days of the flood, like one vast lake. Many square miles were inundated.

The Flood a Great Calamity

The altogether unexpected character of the calamity is vividly set forth by one of the newspaper correspondents in these words, written when the flood was at its height:

> Here is our river, not great as the world's rivers go, flowing through one of the world's greatest cities, precisely where the triumph of man's engineering over nature seems all but final. And suddenly, without warning from men of science, the river leaps up 30 feet from its bed and uses all the devices of man,—his subways and sewers and electric galleries,—to rush madly beneath the city's streets, bursting up far from its usual course in destroying cataracts, seeping through cellar walls until whole quarters stand deep in water and all the houses are treacherously undermined. Pavements sink in long stretches; cavities of unknown depth appear, bubbling over with the muddy water. The walls of the greatest buildings threaten to give way. There is everywhere the uneasy sense of more and incalculable damage to come when the waters shall have gone down. Nature has attacked man in his proudest works. So far she has the best of it. Of 4,000,000 souls in Paris and its immediate environs, or more than 5,000,000 affected by the flood, at least 200,000 already suffer acute want.

Historic Monuments in Danger

A number of the historic buildings of the city were submerged so that access to them was possible only by means of boats. These included the famous Cathedral of Nôtre Dame, the

GOVERNMENTAL INSPECTION OF THE FLOODED DISTRICTS
(In the boat are President Fallières, Premier Briand, Minister Millerand, and M. Lepine, Prefect of Police of Paris)

HOW THE FLOOD ALMOST SUBMERGED THE ALEXANDER III. BRIDGE
(When the river is at its normal level the arches of this bridge are twenty-five feet above the surface of the water)

Church of the Madéleine, and the St. Lazare railway station. The water invaded the subways, put the Metropolitan Railway out of commission, filled up almost all of the splendid system, nearly 700 miles in length, of sewers, for which Paris is celebrated; swept over eight of the twenty-four bridges across the river, caused the floors of the Palais Bourbon, where the Chamber of Deputies meets, the Quai d'Orsay, and of the department stores in the Louvre and Bon Marché to cave in; submerged the greater extent of the Place de la Concorde, the Bois du Boulogne, the Place de l'Opéra, the Champs d'Elysées, and the Champs de Mars, and put the greater part of the city in darkness by stopping the electric-light dynamos. Although comparatively few lives were lost, the number of those who are reported to have suffered through the flood and in different ways, by being rendered homeless and through accident, has been put at 250,000. The loss of property has been immense, exceeding $200,000,000, in the figures as stated by Premier Briand. The waters of the swollen rivers descended very slowly, until by the middle of February they had almost reached their normal levels, at least in the vicinity of Paris.

Measures of Relief

The national and municipal authorities, meanwhile, had been busy carrying out the measures of relief which were promptly adopted. Premier Briand brought the whole resources of the national government to the assistance of the war department, which placed the city under what was virtually martial law. The soldiers performed heroic rescue work and all the schools and barracks of the city were used to house the refugees. The apaches, as the Paris thieves and hoodlums are known, took some advantage of the calamity to plunder, but when the military commanders had shot several of these looters the disorder ceased. The Premier, moreover, gave notice that the sternest measures of prosecution would follow any attempt to corner provisions. There was for a time great fear of pestilence when the waters began to recede because of the dead animals and refuse from the sewers. The systematic, thorough, and prompt work of the building and sanitary engineers, however, undertaken the moment the flood began to recede, has averted, so far as reported, all but a few cases of sickness. Funds have been started in various countries for the relief of the sufferers. The French Parliament itself has appropriated $400,000 for relief, and public subscription, it was reported last month, had already brought in five or six times that amount to the rescue committee.

Causes of the Flood

It is probable that an unusual combination of circumstances is to be held responsible for the disaster which has overtaken the French capital. The country in which Paris lies is really a rather shallow, alluvial basin, and through this basin the River Seine takes its tortuous course. At its normal level the river, which is seven miles long within the city limits, covers in itself almost one-tenth of the area under the municipal government. Confined between walls of high masonry, as it is upon entering the city, and with its channel blocked during its course by numerous islands, the Seine runs for nearly seven miles through a congested city district very little above high-water mark. During recent years sand-banks and bars have been increasing in number and size at the mouth of the river on the British Channel, and this has also impeded the discharge of the water. For three months past there have been almost constant rains in the mountains from which the tributaries of the Seine flow, and for ten days before the actual overflow of its banks by the river Paris was in the grip of an almost uninterrupted storm of rain and snow. The complicated system of sewers was devised to keep the city pure and clean by draining the waste into the river to great disposal works at Clichy, many miles below the city limits. It was the choking up of these sewers, which contain also the gas pipes, electric-light, telephone and telegraph wires, and the pneumatic tubes of the postal system, together with the filling of the tubes of the Metropolitan Railway and the cellars and basements of public buildings and residences, that paralyzed the life of the entire city for almost a week.

To Prevent Future Floods

Many plans have been proposed to ward off a repetition of this calamity. As far back as the eighteenth century it was proposed to fill in the low ground of Paris to a height above the reach of all possible floods. This, however, would not seem to be a possible remedy to-day. Another scheme suggested by modern French engineers is to build a channel from the river above Paris around to the first loop below the city, and to turn the

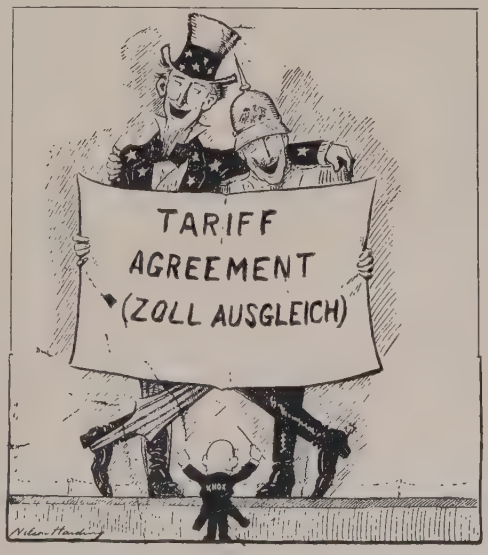
flood waters into this. Still a third plan contemplates the building of dams upon the streams that feed the Seine, holding back the water at flood time and letting it out when the streams are low. To carry out either of these modern plans would cost a vast sum of money,—at least $30,000,000 or $40,000,000, it has been calculated,—but the resources, courage, and thrift of the French people will undoubtedly prove equal to the carrying out of some such plan now that the terrible urgent necessity has been so effectively demonstrated. Destructive floods have been devastating other parts of the Republic. Italy also has suffered. A rise of 40 feet of water in the River Tiber above Rome is reported, with consequent great destruction of property and injury to many human beings.

The Tariff Agreement with Germany

The threatened tariff war with Germany has been averted by an agreement reached early last month. The merchants of Germany and the United States will continue to trade upon the minimum tariff basis. As we have already explained fully in these pages, the terms of our reciprocity* treaty with Germany concluded under the Dingley Tariff law expired on the seventh of last month, and if there had not been some special arrangement between the two countries the maximum provision of the new German tariff would at that date have been levied upon all imports from the United States. On the first of next month, also, the maximum provisions of the Payne-Aldrich tariff would have been enforced against German trade. Happily, however, for the continuance of our immense business with the German Empire (amounting in value to more than $400,000,000 in the year 1909), a bill ratifying the agreement made by the German Foreign Office with our own State Department was passed by the Reichstag, without change and without debate, on February 5. Two days later President Taft issued a proclamation announcing that, beginning with the first of next month, imports from Germany are to be entitled to admission at the minimum rate of duty. The main point of commercial irritation between Germany and the United States has always been in the meat business. The very strict inspection and regulation of American meats and cattle, amounting at times almost to a prohibition, are defended in Germany as necessary for sanitary reasons. It is generally believed, however, that these regulations were established and are now kept in force chiefly through the influence of the German agrarian party. The Prussian "Junker," who is first of all an agriculturist, of course desires to exclude all foreign food products for the benefit of his own holdings. In accordance with the agreement just reached between the two governments the question of these regulations regarding cattle and meats is set aside for separate treatment in the future.

And with France

Our tariff relations with France have been the subject of negotiations between the two governments for some months. The provisions of France's new tariff go into effect on the first of next month (provided the French Senate approves the measure in time for it to become a law), upon the same day when, if an agreement be not reached, the highest duties called for by the Payne-Aldrich tariff will be applied against imports from France. It is not expected, however, that there will be any real difficulty in coming to an agreement with France whereby each country shall receive most favored nation privileges. We have already made minimum rate agreements with Great Britain, Russia, Holland, Switzerland, Spain, and Italy. Since these countries are France's competitors for American trade it would not seem likely that the Republic would risk a trade war with the United States when all her rival neighbors can secure a minimum rate. Franco-Ameri-



PEACE AND HARMONY

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

can trade, during the calendar year 1909, amounted to more than $250,000,000, and this sum bulks very large in France's foreign business.

Cabinet Changes and Parliaments

Parliaments and Ministries all over Europe have been having strenuous times during the first weeks of 1910. The British have had their general and a number of cabinet changes. The appointment of Mr. Herbert Gladstone to be first Governor-General of the United States of South Africa left vacant the post of Home Secretary, to which Mr. Winston Churchill has just been appointed. Mr. Sydney Buxton, former Postmaster-General, succeeds Mr. Churchill as President of the Board of Trade, and is himself succeeded in the Post-Office Department by Mr. Herbert Louis Samuel. In Britain's Indian empire the new Imperial Legislative Council embodying Lord Morley's ideas of Indian reform began its legislative life on January 25 by passing a bill for a strict governmental control of the press. In Prussia the Diet has been disappointed with the government bill for the reform of the three-class electoral system (introduced on February 4) by Dr. von Bethmann Hollweg, the Imperial Chancellor, in his capacity as Prussian Minister of State. The bill is not liberal enough to suit the Diet or country, and there have been riots by Socialists and other radicals against its enactment into law. In Spain the internal Liberal dissensions have culminated in the resignation of the Moret cabinet and the accession to the Premiership of Señor José Canalejas y Mendes, a leader of the extreme Liberals. The new Prime Minister is reported to favor the immediate repudiation of the concordat between Spain and the Vatican, looking toward the ultimate separation of Church and State. In Italy the Giolitti ministry has been superseded by a new administration under Signor Sonnino, whose watchword is to be retrenchment. In Hungary the ministerial crisis has been temporarily arranged, but affairs in that country are still in a state of uncertain equilibrium. The Greek Cabinet, after a prolonged contest for its life with the Military League (see the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for February) succumbed on January 27 and presented its resignation to the King. The question of Crete's fate still presses for settlement, although it was reported on February 15 that the four protecting powers (France, Russia, Italy, and Great Britain) had jointly notified the Cretans that delegates from Crete would not be permitted to enter the Greek Assembly. The new Finnish Diet, which began its sessions on February 12, includes among its 200 members 86 Social Democrats, 15 of the entire membership being women. As a result of the general elections which took place late in November in Norway, the cabinet under Gunnar Knudsen as Premier presented their resignations to Parliament upon its assembling on January 27.

Japan's Friendly Attitude

When the Japanese Diet convened on January 22, Premier Katsura, in discussing the foreign relations of the Empire, reaffirmed the intention of his government to maintain the principles of the open door in Manchuria, foreshadowed the annexation of Korea, and announced the early introduction of a new tariff law in the Parliament. Some days later Count Komura, Minister of Foreign Affairs, in a speech before the Diet, emphasized the friendly relations existing between Japan and the United States, recalled the cordial reception accorded the Japanese representatives at the Hudson-Fulton Celebration in New York, at the Portola Festival in San Francisco, as well as the members of the Japanese Commercial Commission headed by Baron Shibusawa. Discussing Japan's policy in Manchuria, Count Komura announced that Port Arthur was to be made an open port. Then referring to the proposal made by Secretary Knox for the neutralization of the Manchurian railways, he said:

> While the Imperial Government are determined to adhere to their avowed policy scrupulously to uphold the principle of the open door and equal opportunity in Manchuria, it should be observed that realization of the proposed plan would bring about radical changes in the condition of things in Manchuria which was established by the treaties of Portsmouth and Peking and would thus be attended with serious consequences in the region affected by the South Manchurian Railway. There have grown up numerous undertakings which have been promoted in the belief that the railway would remain in our possession and the Imperial Government could not, with a due sense of their responsibility, agree to abandon the railway in question. Consequently the Imperial Government to their regret felt bound to make reply to the United States Government instancing their inability to consent to the proposal. We trust that the United States Government will appreciate our position and that other powers will equally recognize the justice of our attitude in the matter.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From January 21 to February 16, 1910)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

January 24.—The House passes the Urgent Deficiency Appropriation bill, striking out the provision for expenses of the Immigration Commission; James S. Graham (Dem., Ill.) is elected a member of the Ballinger-Pinchot investigating committee, succeeding Mr. Lloyd, resigned.

January 25.—The Senate passes the Fortifications Appropriation bill and discusses a measure creating the Glacier National Park in northern Montana....In the House, a bill providing for a Bureau of Mines in the Interior Department is passed.

January 26.—The House passes the Mann "white slave" bill, dealing with the interstate commerce features of the traffic.

January 27.—In the House, Mr. Hull (Dem., Tenn.) defends the proposed income-tax amendment to the Constitution, and Mr. Boutell (Rep., Ill.) defends the Tariff bill passed at the special session.

January 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) defends the Payne-Aldrich Tariff law; the Committee on Post-Offices favorably reports the Administration bill providing for the establishment of postal savings banks....The House debates the Agricultural Appropriation bill.

January 31.—In the Senate, Mr. Carter (Rep., Mont.) explains the Postal Savings Bank bill.

February 1.—In the House, the Forestry Service is attacked by Mr. Mondell (Rep., Wyo.) and Mr. Taylor (Dem., Colo.) in the course of debate on the Agricultural Appropriation bill.

February 2.—The Senate passes the Army Appropriation bill ($95,440,567) and the Urgent Deficiency bill; Mr. Purcell (Dem., N. D.) is appointed a member of the Ballinger-Pinchot committee in place of Mr. Paynter, resigned.

February 3.—The Senate debates the Postal Savings Bank bill....The House passes the Agricultural Appropriation bill ($13,417,136).

February 5.—In the Senate, the Committee on Public Expenditures reports the resolution providing for the creation of a Business Methods Commission.

February 7.—The Administration's Federal Incorporation bill is introduced in both branches.

February 9.—The Senate, by unanimous vote, passes a bill to promote Robert E. Peary to the grade of Rear-Admiral and place him on the retired list; a resolution is carried authorizing an investigation into the causes for the advance in prices; the bill establishing the Glacier National Park, comprising 14,000 square miles in northern Montana, is passed.

February 10.—After long debate in both branches the Senate instructs its members on the Joint Printing Committee to ignore a summons to appear before the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, while the House directs its members on the committee to obey the summons....In the Senate, Mr. Borah (Rep., Idaho,) upholds the constitutionality of the proposed income-tax amendment to the Constitution.

February 11.—The Senate passes the Bennett "white slave" bill and discusses a measure modifying federal criminal procedure....The House passes the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation bill.

February 14.—The Senate discusses the bill changing the form of government in Alaska.... The House debates the River and Harbor Appropriation bill.

February 15.—In the Senate, Mr. Burkett (Rep., Neb.) speaks in favor of postal savings banks....The House passes the River and Harbor bill ($42,380,377).

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

January 21.—The Department of Justice announces its intention to prosecute the Beef Trust immediately.

January 23.—The Federal Court at Kansas City enjoins the Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railroad from refusing shipments of liquor into the "dry" States of Oklahoma and Kansas.

January 25.—John W. Daniel (Dem.) is re-elected United States Senator by the Virginia Legislature.

January 26.—L. R. Glavis, at the first session of the Ballinger-Pinchot investigating committee, reiterates his charges against the Secretary of the Interior....The federal inquiry into the meat-packing industry is begun at Chicago.... Judge Hough, in the United States Circuit Court at New York, dismisses the Government's suit against the New York *World* for alleged libelous statements concerning the purchase of the Panama Canal....Inquiries into the alleged Milk Trust are being carried on in New York City by the Deputy Attorney-General and by the grand jury.

January 27.—The Democratic League, formed last summer at Saratoga Springs for the purpose of strengthening the Democratic party in New York State, is permanently organized at Albany....Eleven persons, city officials and contractors, are indicted by the grand jury in Chicago for conspiracy to defraud the city of $254,000....Three members of the New York police force are dismissed for clubbing; Mayor Gaynor orders that the police use more discrimination in arresting shirtwaist strikers.

January 28.—President Taft instructs the Attorney-General to press the Government's suit to dissolve the merger of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific railroads.

January 29.—An amended organic act for Porto Rico is submitted to the House by the President.

January 30.—State Senator Conger formally prefers charges against Senator Allds, president pro tem. of the New York Senate, declaring that the latter demanded and received $1000 for refraining to press the passage of a certain bill.

January 31.—Louis R. Glavis is under cross-examination before the Ballinger-Pinchot committee....Lloyd C. Griscom is elected president of the New York County Republican Committee, succeeding Herbert Parsons, resigned.

February 1.—William E. Purcell is sworn in as Senator from North Dakota, succeeding Mr. Thompson, resigned....The New York delegation in the House of Representatives pledges support to President Taft's legislative program.

February 4.—The President nominates Charles F. Stokes to be Surgeon-General of the Navy, succeeding Presley M. Rixey.

February 5.—Senator Frank P. Flint, of California, announces that owing to conditions created by the new primary law in his State he will not be a candidate for re-election.

February 7.—Governor Fort, of New Jersey, transmits to the Legislature the proposed income-tax amendment to the Constitution, with the recommendation that it be approved.... Wade H. Ellis resigns as Assistant to the Attorney-General in order to take charge of the Republican campaign in Ohio....John F. Fitzgerald is inaugurated as Mayor of Boston.

February 8.—The New York State Senate begins its inquiry into the Allds bribery charges.

February 9.—The Secretary of Agriculture opens to settlement 4,000,000 acres of the public domain formerly included in the forest reserves.

February 11.—A direct-primary bill embodying Governor Hughes' ideas is introduced in the New York Legislature.

February 12.—President Taft, speaking at New York, defends the legislative program of the Republican party....New York State political affairs are discussed at a conference between President Taft, Governor Hughes, and other Republican leaders, in New York City.

February 14.—Attorney-General Wickersham issues a statement defending certain objectionable portions of the Federal Incorporation bill. ....The jury trying ex-Congressman Binger Herman, charged with land frauds, disagrees at Portland, Ore.

February 15.—Mayor Gaynor, of New York, removes the Aqueduct Commissioners and instructs their successors to close up at once the affairs of the Commission....Ohio State politics are discussed at a White House dinner in honor of Wade Ellis.

February 16.—Governor Hughes, of New York, appoints Roger P. Clark and H. Le Roy Austin as commissioners to investigate the State Forest, Fish, and Game Commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

January 25.—Lord Minto, in opening the Imperial Legislative Council of India, declares that preachings by the revolutionary press will not be tolerated.

January 26.—The trial of a native for conspiracy in India brings out the fact that the establishment of an independent kingdom had been planned, with a native ruler.

January 27.—The Norwegian elections having been adverse to the ministry, Premier Knudsen and the members of his cabinet submit their resignations to King Haakon....Fifteen persons are wounded by the police in Brunswick, Germany, during a Socialist demonstration in favor of election reform.

January 28.—The Hungarian Parliament is adjourned until March 4, following the failure of a vote of confidence in the new Hedervary ministry....An agreement is reached among the parties in Greece to revise the constitution, on condition that the Military League be dissolved.

January 30.—The Chinese Government denies the petition of representatives of provincial assemblies, asking for the establishment of a parliament now, instead of at the end of nine years.

January 31.—A new cabinet is formed in Greece, with M. Dragoumis as Premier and Minister of Finance; Colonel Zorbas, head of the Military League, is Minister of War....The Japanese Government announces its intention to convert its domestic loans until they are all on a 4 per cent. basis.

February 1.—Complete returns in the British general election show that the Liberals will have 274 seats in the next Parliament, the Unionists 273, the Nationalists 82, and the Laborites 41, the ministerial majority being 124....A new ministry is formed in Sweden, with Konow as Premier.

February 3.—The German Chancellor, in a note made public at Berlin, rebukes the Pan-Germans for their attack on the foreign office.

February 4.—The Brazilian Government plans to convert its 5 per cent. outstanding external debt into 4 per cent. bonds.

February 5.—Two Cuban editors are sentenced to imprisonment for libeling President Gomez.

February 6.—The French Socialist Congress opens at Nimes.

February 7.—The French cabinet approves the naval program, involving an expenditure of approximately $28,000,000 for construction during the next ten years and the maintenance of twenty-eight battleships.

February 9.—John Redmond is re-elected chairman of the Irish Nationalist party....The Moret cabinet, in Spain, resigns and Jose Canalejas forms a Radical and Anti-Clerical ministry.

February 10.—John Redmond declares that the Nationalists will not vote for the budget until Home Rule has been granted to Ireland.

February 12.—Social Democrats hold 86 of the 200 seats in the new Finnish Diet; fifteen of the delegates are women....Premier Canalejas, of Spain, announces that if pending negotiations with the Vatican fail Spain will carry out her plans regardless of opposition.

February 13.—Many persons are wounded by police and troops while participating in Socialist mass-meetings throughout Germany against the suffrage bill.

February 14.—Premier Asquith announces a

THE LEADER OF THE OPPOSITION IN ENGLAND

(*Vanity Fair* (London) recently contained an excellent cartoon supplement entitled "Dialectics," in which is a portrait of the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour, in a familiar House of Commons pose)

number of minor cabinet transfers and appointments.

February 15.—The newly elected British Parliament assembles.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

January 21.—Japan and Russia refuse to agree to Secretary Knox's proposal to neutralize the railways of Manchuria.

January 23.—The American note on the tariff situation is unsatisfactory to the German Government.

January 24.—The German Government announces that its tariff board has approved the attitude of the Federal Council in the American tariff matter.... The Casablanca Commission reduces the claims against Morocco on account of the massacres to $2,613,928, less than half the original amount.

January 28.—The Nicaraguan court exonerates the members of the court-martial who ordered the execution of the Americans, Groce and Cannon, on the ground that they acted under instructions from Zelaya.

January 29.—The President issues a proclamation declaring that Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Belgium, Portugal, Persia, and Egypt are entitled to minimum tariff rates.

February 3.—An agreement is reached between the United States and Germany whereby minimum tariff rates will be exchanged.

February 5.—It is announced that the International Court of Arbitration will meet at The Hague on June 1 to adjust the Newfoundland fisheries' dispute between the United States and Canada.... The German Reichstag adopts the bill approving the tariff arrangements with the United States.... The second Central American Peace Conference concludes its sessions at San Salvador, recommending standard educational, diplomatic, monetary, and commercial systems throughout the republics.

February 7.—Minimum rates under the Payne-Aldrich Tariff law are accorded to German importations into the United States.

February 9.—Minimum tariff rates are accorded to importations into the United States from Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Liberia.

February 12.—The four protecting powers notify the Cretan Executive Committee that elections of Cretans to the Greek National Assembly will not be allowed.

February 16.—Great Britain, France, and Germany ask China to explain her attitude toward proposals for new railways.

CHANG YIN TANG

(The new Chinese Minister to the United States)

AFTER THE BURSTING OF THE DYKE AT CHOISY-LE-ROI: ONE OF THE SUBURBS OF PARIS UNDER TEN FEET OF WATER

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

January 21.—Swollen rivers in France and Germany, caused by recent heavy storms, do great damage to factories and farms....A passenger train on the Canadian Pacific near Sudbury, Ont., leaves the track and plunges into the Spanish River; twoscore or more lives are lost. ....The movement to boycott meat until prices are lowered becomes national....Thomas L. Lewis is re-elected president of the United Mine Workers of America.

January 22.—Gifford Pinchot is elected president of the National Conservation Association, succeeding Charles W. Eliot....A memorial statue of Phillips Brooks, designed by Saint Gaudens, is unveiled at Trinity Church, Boston.

January 23.—Earth shocks are felt throughout the islands of Martinique and St. Vincent.... The overflowing of the Susquehanna River causes considerable damage near Havre de Grace, Md.

January 24.—Continued heavy rains in France cause the floods to reach the proportions of a catastrophe.

January 25.—The whole of northern, western, and southern Europe suffers from violent storms....The National Board of Trade begins its fortieth annual meeting at Washington.

January 26.—The waters of the Seine, in France, have risen over 25 feet; half the length of the quays in the city of Paris are under water. ....The Tiber, in Italy, is 40 feet higher than normal, flooding the surrounding country.... Reductions in the prices of meat, butter, and eggs are reported in several cities....The United States Banking Company, of Mexico, suspends.

January 27.—The walls of the d'Orsay Railway Station, in Paris, give way under pressure from the floods; the Notre Dame and the Louvre are surrounded with water and their basements flooded.... The president of the Northern Miners' Federation, at Sydney, N. S. W., is sentenced to one year in prison for obstructing work at a mine during a strike.

January 28.—The Seine is stationary and its tributaries begin to fall; the water-gauge at Paris shows the river to be over 30 feet above low-water level, the highest known figure, and the inundated territory is estimated at about 9 square miles, or one-quarter of the city, in some places the water being 12 feet deep; portions of the pavements in the Place de l'Opéra, the Champs Elysées, and the Place de la Concorde collapse. ....The British destroyer *Eden* is wrecked off Dover, England, her crew of fifty-three officers and men are rescued.

January 29.—With the return of rainy weather in Italy the rivers again rise....Incessant and heavy rains in Costa Rica change the course of the Barbier River and destroy several bridges.

January 30.—The Seine falls about 18 inches in twenty-four hours.

January 31.—Seventy-five miners lose their lives following an explosion in a coal mine at Primero, Colo....James R. Keene is made a defendant in a suit brought in connection with the collapse of the Columbus & Hocking Coal and Iron pool on the New York Stock Exchange. ....A new world's record for aeroplane flight with a passenger is made at Mourmelon, France, with a Farman biplane.

February 1.—A gas explosion in the Browder coal mine, near Drakesboro, Ky., results in the death of thirty-four men....Italian rivers are subsiding and the critical situation at Venice is relieved....A petition in bankruptcy is filed against Fisk & Robinson, the New York bond house.

February 2.—Fire-damp causes an explosion in the Palau "model" coal mine at Las Esperanzas, Mexico, killing sixty-eight miners and injuring forty....The General Education Board distributes $450,000 among a number of colleges.

February 4.—The Seine is 10 feet lower than its flood maximum; food and clothing are being supplied to 250,000 people, and more than $700,000 has been contributed to the relief work by foreigners....The steamship *Kentucky* founders off Hatteras; her crew of forty-seven men are

rescued by the *Alamo*, summoned by wireless. ....A jury in the Circuit Court at Hartford, Conn., returns a verdict of $74,000 against the union hatters for conspiracy to boycott D. E. Loewe & Co., of Danbury.

February 5.—Eleven men are killed by a gas explosion in a coal mine near Indiana, Pa.... Contracts are signed for the construction in this country of two first-class battleships for Argentina....The one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Ole Bull is celebrated in Norway.

February 7.—The waters of the Seine are sixteen feet lower than the flood level, but many streets and buildings cave in as the water recedes; the cabinet decides to ask Parliament for an additional credit of $4,000,000 for relief work....Twenty-seven members of the Paper Board Association are fined $2000 each in the Circuit Court at New York City for violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law.

February 8.—The National Sugar Refining Company pays to the Government $604,304.37 for back duties on under-weighed sugar importations....The National Geographic Society accepts Commander Peary's proposition to undertake jointly with the Peary Arctic Club an expedition to the Antarctic regions; Commander Peary, at a lecture in New York, donates toward the expedition the $10,000 which had just been presented to him.

February 9.—A statue of Morris K. Jesup is unveiled at the fortieth anniversary exercises of the American Museum of Natural History in New York.

February 11.—The French Antarctic expedition under Dr. Jean Charcot reaches Punta Arenas on its return voyage....The French steamer *General Chanzy* founders off the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean; only one of the 159 passengers and crew is saved....The hoof-and-mouth disease appears in Berlin.

February 12.—The Bank of France offers to advance $20,000,000 for five years, without interest, to small manufacturers and merchants who were victims of the flood.

February 13.—Louis Paulhan concludes a series of aeroplane flights at New Orleans.

February 14.—James R. Keene admits on the witness stand that he managed the recent collapsed pools on the New York Stock Exchange.

February 15.—A violent storm rages throughout eastern and southern France, interrupting telegraph and transportation service and causing damage to shipping....The failure of seven German grain firms is announced in Hamburg.

OBITUARY

January 22.—Henry T. Coates, the book publisher, 67.

January 23.—Ezra Kendall, the comedian, 49. ....Joseph E. Whiting, the veteran actor.

January 24.—Benjamin Hanford, a leader in the Socialist party, 49....Dr. Wills De Hass, a writer on historical and archeological subjects, 93.

January 25.—Dr. W. G. R. Mullan, a prominent Jesuit educator, 50....Frank A. Burrelle, a pioneer in the press-clipping business, 53.

January 26.—Edward V. Raynolds, professor of comparative law at Yale, 51....Judge Albert C. Thompson, of the United States District Court at Cincinnati, 68.

January 27.—Rear-Adm. Nehemiah M. Dyer, U. S. N., retired, conspicuous in the Civil and Spanish-American wars, 71.

January 28.—William F. Draper, formerly a member of Congress from Massachusetts and American Ambassador to Italy, 68....Edward Patterson, for many years on the Supreme Court bench in New York State, 71....William Bell, the photographer, 79.

January 29.—Louis Edouard Rod, the French novelist, 53....Bishop Cyrus D. Foss, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 76....Samuel Bernstein, a well-known orchestral musician of New York, 75.

January 30.—Franklin T. Ives, of Connecticut, historical and scientific writer, 82.

January 31.—Rt. Rev. John Dowden, Episcopal Bishop of Edinburgh, 70.

February 1. — Ex-Congressman William Baker, of Kansas, 79....B. R. McAlpine, formerly president of the Western Union Telegraph Company, 91....George P. Brown, editor of the *Public School Journal*, 74....Caesar Borja, prominent in governmental affairs in Ecuador, 58.

February 2.—Sir George Drummond, a member of the Canadian Senate and president of the Bank of Montreal, 81.

February 4.—Congressman William C. Lovering, of Massachusetts, 73.

February 5.—Ex-Congressman Louis E. Atkinson, of Pennsylvania, 69....Wesley R. Andrews, chairman of the Republican State Committee of Pennsylvania, 73....Rev. Edward Lord Clark, D.D., a well-known clergyman and author of works on Egypt, 71....Thomas F. Strong, a prominent lumber operator of Ogdensburg, N. Y., 54.

February 7.—Ex-Judge James B. Shepard, of the Supreme Court of North Carolina, 64.... William Dodsworth, editor and publisher of New York *Journal of Commerce*, 84.

February 9.—William Bradley Rising, emeritus professor of chemistry at the University of California, 71....Dr. Mary E. Green, physician and lecturer on the nutritive value of foods, 66. ....John S. Ogilvie, the New York book publisher, 67.

February 10.—Capt. Alexander Sharp, U. S. N., president of the Naval Inspection Board, 55.... Capt. William C. Seccombe, for many years in the Cunard trans-Atlantic service, 61.

February 11.—Brig.-Gen. Robert L. Meade, U. S. A., retired, who commanded United States marines during troubles in Panama, Cuba, China, and the Philippines, 69....Henry I. Butterfield, a retired merchant of New York and Philadelphia, 92.

February 12.—Thomas H. Dodge, inventor of the cylinder printing press, 87.

February 15.—Gustave Bock, the cigar manufacturer of Havana, 73....John Macallan Swan, a noted animal painter, 63.

February 16.—William Everett, of Massachusetts, the Latin and Greek scholar and former Congressman, 70.

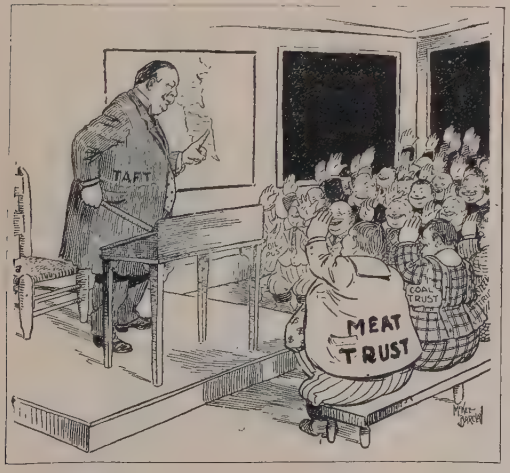
CARTOONS ON CURRENT TOPICS

"THEY'RE GOING TO DISSOLVE US!"
(The trusts anxiously awaiting the Supreme Court decisions in the Standard Oil and the Tobacco cases)
From the *Herald* (New York)

"STOP ROCKING THAT BOAT!"
(Policeman Taft warns the trusts which jeopardize the general prosperity boat)
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)

MERELY THE OPERATION OF NATURAL LAWS
(The packers' explanation of the high prices of meat)
From the *Herald* (New York)

Whether the high price of meat is really due to the natural law of supply and demand or is the result of artificial methods employed by a "meat trust" may be ascertained in the Government's case against the packers at Chicago.



TEACHER TAFT: "Now, there are good trusts and bad trusts. All of you who are good trusts hold up your hands!" (Notice the unanimity with which the hands are up!)
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

THE SLEEPING CONSERVATIVE, DREAMING OF ROOSEVELT, SEES A "BACK FROM ELBA" NIGHTMARE!
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)

THE GHOST THAT WILL NOT DOWN

THE TRIO ON THE RIGHT: "Thou canst not say we did it!"

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

The cartoon above pictures the low tariff ghost coming back to haunt the makers of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, while the two at the bottom of the page illustrate the views of Wall Street regarding the proposed federal incorporation law. The right-hand cartoon at the top of the page shows the insurgent horse, impelled by the necessity for party harmony in the approaching Congressional campaign, coming around to eat from President Taft's hand.

THE INSURGENTS HAD TO COME TO IT

From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

THE SICK ELEPHANT AND THE NEW DOCTOR

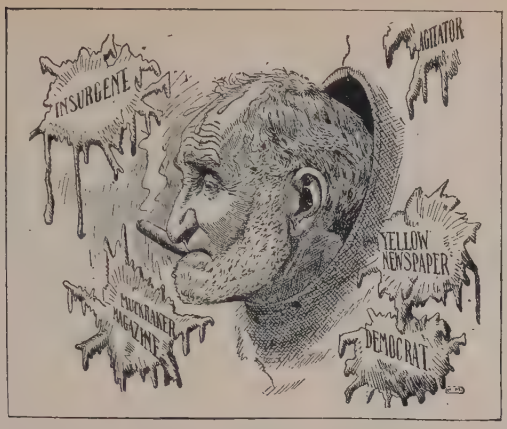
(Apropos of the appointment of Hon. Wade Ellis as chairman of the Ohio Republican State Committee)

From the *Post* (Cincinnati)

TWO WALL STREET VIEWS OF THE FEDERAL INCORPORATION BILL

A BOGIE FOR THE BULLS AND BEARS
From the *Jersey Journal* (Jersey City)

THE MORGAN ATTITUDE: "WELCOME."
From the *World* (New York)



CONSIDERING THE NUMBER OF ATTACKS ON MR. CANNON, HOW WOULD YOU LIKE TO BE THE SPEAKER?
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

THE REPUBLICAN PARTY SEES THE HANDWRITING ON THE WALL
From the *Traveler* (Boston)

THE COMMON PEOPLE: "You can't take that baggage in here, sir!"
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

This page of cartoons holds out small comfort or encouragement for the immediate future of the Republican party. Apropos of the attacks on Speaker Cannon, the House of Representatives was last month treated to an interesting spectacle when the Speaker laid down the gavel and took the floor in his own defense. Several of the cartoons shown take the ground that the prospects of Republican victory in the approaching Congressional elections have been seriously endangered by popular dissatisfaction with the new tariff, the high cost of living, Administration discords, and other political and economic unpleasantness. Certainly the scandals uncovered in connection with the New York State Legislature at Albany are not going to help the Republican party in that State.

1910 CONGRESSIONAL ELECTION NURSERY
ANTI-TARIFF, STORMY HIGH COST OF LIVING CRIZ MAVE BALLINGER-PINCHOT FEUDS— ANTI-CANNON FEUD

THE REPUBLICAN CONGRESSIONAL ELECTION NURSERY AFTER A RATHER HARD WINTER
From the *World-Herald* (Omaha)

NOW, THEN, ALL TOGETHER! PRY!
(Referring to New York legislative scandals)
From the *American* (New York)

JUST HANGIN' 'ROUND
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

THE BIG ONES GOT AWAY!
(Uncle Sam telling his sugar fraud fish story to the common people)
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

WALL STREET IS HAVING 'EM TOO OFTEN
LANDLORD: "Hi, you're jarring the whole place; quit it, or out you go!"
From the *Daily News* (Chicago)

"ABSENCE MAKES THE HEART GROW FONDER"
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

Governor Harmon's Presidential boom continues to keep in public view, while it is asserted that the Democratic party, deprived for some time of the presence of Mr. Bryan, who is traveling in South America, is looking fondly in his direction. In order to appreciate fully the Tammany cartoon at the bottom of this page, it will be helpful to read the article on page 300 of this issue, telling of the men and methods of Mayor Gaynor's new administration.

ANOTHER VICTIM
(Tammany, as a result of Mayor Gaynor's new kind of administration)
From the *World* (New York)

CANDIDATES FOR THE AFFECTIONS OF CRETE

THE UNFRIENDLY BROTHERS (in unison): "My pretty maiden, may I presume to offer to escort you? Pray take my arm."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, the new German Chancellor, is not finding it an easy task to satisfy the many and radically different wants of Kaiser Wilhelm's loyal subjects. His embarrassment in the matter of the new Prussian franchise law, to which we refer on another page this month, furnishes the cartoonists with good ammunition for their humorous attacks. The apparently interminable dispute between

THE NEW GERMAN CHANCELLOR

"I will walk *straight* in the footsteps of my predecessor, but it appears to be a difficult task."

From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich)

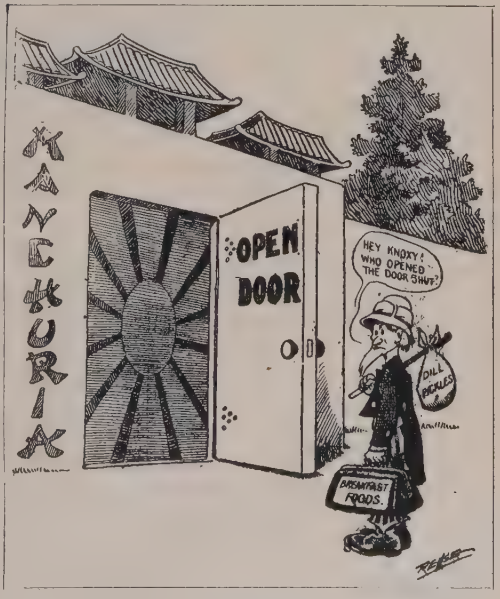
Turkey and Greece over Crete is also set forth in many different ways by the comic artists of Europe. Of course, the question of the "Open Door" in Manchuria,—which is so often closed,—also comes in for a good deal of treatment by the cartoonists.

A GERMAN VIEW OF "LORDS VS. COMMONS"

"Donnerwetter, Baron; let us hope this sort of thing will never happen in Prussia!"

"Don't worry, Count; we members of the aristocracy have a majority in both the Upper and the Lower House!"

From *Ulk* (Berlin)



THE OPEN DOOR IN CHINA APPEARS TO BE A CLOSED INCIDENT

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)

THE MEN WHO ARE GOVERNING NEW YORK CITY

BY WILLIAM B. SHAW

THE American metropolis at the election held in November last voted into office a new municipal administration. This was not accomplished, however, by the familiar Tammany method of the "straight ticket"; for the Hon. William J. Gaynor, who had the Tammany nomination for Mayor, was the only organization candidate who succeeded at the polls. The anti-Tammany Fusion candidates for the offices of Comptroller, President of the Board of Aldermen, and borough presidents were elected. In national politics Mayor Gaynor is a Democrat; so, too, are President John Purroy Mitchel, of the Board of Aldermen, and President George McAneny, of the Borough of Manhattan. Comptroller Prendergast, on the other hand, is a Republican, and so is District-Attorney Whitman, of the County of New York (Manhattan and Bronx Boroughs), who was elected at the same time. The only reason for recalling these facts in this connection is to remind ourselves that, while New York has always been accounted a Democratic city in national and State politics, it has become, through the separation of municipal from national and State elections, fairly non-partisan as respects the conduct of its own local affairs. The personnel of the present city government confirms this conclusion most emphatically.

But what officials really constitute the administration of New York? Of the men who took office on January 1, 1910, the Mayor was elected on a ticket that was opposed by the Comptroller, the President of the Board of Aldermen, and the five borough presidents. All these municipal officers are members, with the Mayor, of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Moreover, they have important powers, under the charter, independent of the Mayor. If they should misconduct themselves in office the Mayor could not be held responsible, but charges might be preferred before the Governor of the State, who might exercise the power of removal, as he did two years ago in the case of the President of Manhattan Borough.

Of this Board of Estimate and Apportionment,—the body which holds the city's purse-strings and decides financial questions with all the finality that attaches to the action of Congress in federal matters,—the Mayor is the most important member. He represents the whole city and every element in its varied population. His responsibilities are far-reaching and complex; for there is a vast range of civic interests which in the lack of the Mayor's personal attention are in danger of having no official recognition whatever. It has been asserted more than once that in actual power and influence the Mayoralty of New York is second only to the Presidency of the United States. Four and one-half millions of people live under the government of which the Mayor is the head, and that government touches the individual citizen at more points of contact than the national Government itself. There are, it is true, a few States of larger population than the City of New York, but their Governors, so far as their functions in promoting the welfare of the citizen are concerned, do not loom large on the horizon, save in exceptional cases. In New York City for the next four years everybody knows that very much depends on the kind of men whom the Mayor puts in places of trust and power, and on the attitude that he himself adopts toward various public questions and measures.

FROM THE BENCH TO THE MAYOR'S OFFICE

William J. Gaynor's equipment for the important post to which his fellow citizens have called him is quite unlike that of any Mayor that New York has had in recent times. Born on a farm in central New York State fifty-nine years ago, young Gaynor came to the metropolis in his early twenties and from newspaper work was graduated into the law. He worked hard at his profession and soon rose from the ranks, so that his services were sought after in important litigation. His interest lay chiefly in public causes, and his name first became known beyond the borders of Brooklyn in the famous prosecution of John Y. McKane for election frauds in 1893. His efforts convicted Mr. McKane

and made his crimes so detestable in the community that they have never been repeated. Mr. Gaynor's prominence in the prosecution of McKane led to his election to the Supreme Court bench, where he served for over fifteen years, resigning in the fall of 1909 to accept the nomination for the Mayoralty. At the expiration of his first term, in 1907, he was re-elected by a practically unanimous vote, having already been named by the Governor as one of the Justices of the Appellate Division. On the bench Judge Gaynor was regarded by the lawyers as stern and impatient of delays. At the same time it used to be said of him that a young lawyer could learn much from practice in his court, and that he taught the well-nigh lost art of pleading. Few of his decisions were reversed by the Court of Appeals.

HON. WILLIAM J. GAYNOR
(Mayor of the City of New York)

Throughout his career on the bench Judge Gaynor was keenly interested in public questions, and especially in the problems that arose in connection with the traction situation. He was an early advocate of municipal ownership. The Metropolitan Street Railway fiasco was predicted by him several years before the public suspected the true condition of that company. The fact that he was known to have given much thought to the extension of New York's rapid-transit facilities caused the leaders in the Democratic city convention last fall to defer to his judgment on this matter, and the result was that Judge Gaynor himself, while not seeking the nomination for Mayor, wrote the platform declaration in favor of city-built subways and demanding that contracts for construction be kept separate from those of operation. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment, through a committee consisting of the Mayor, the Comptroller, and the President of the Board of Aldermen, is now conferring with the Public Service Commission on plans for the increase of transit facilities in the greater city.

Besides his interest in public affairs, Judge Gaynor had exhibited on the bench certain traits that led men to believe he would make a good executive. His career has shown determination of the type that the books call "dogged," independence of judgment, and an unlimited capacity for getting at the bottom of things by persistent delving,—the Judge himself called it the merest "drudgery."

Mayor Gaynor gave the public its first great surprise when his appointments were announced. He had spent weeks in reaching a decision on them and when it was made he kept his secret well. People somehow had the impression that because the Mayor had been elected on the Tammany ticket he would make up his appointments from a Tammany slate. It did not work out precisely in that way. Three commissionerships, it is true, went to Tammany men (not "leaders"), while a dozen others were distributed among a group of experts and business men, many of whom had probably never seen the inside of the Fourteenth Street Wigwam.

In the list of new heads of departments were names familiar to the public, and in almost every instance the appointee was at once recognized as a man who had already shown his qualifications for the task assigned him by actual accomplishment, or else had shown peculiar aptitude for the kind of service demanded. It is all summed up in that somewhat overworked phrase, "administrative efficiency." In some of the New York City departments a great deal has been

MR. GEORGE M'ANENY
(President of the Borough of Manhattan)

done of late to define the tasks of particular officials and correlate those tasks with a view to the most effective and economical use of the entire office force. With the various branches of the service manned by intelligent and faithful employees and supervised by commissioners who know their jobs, there is no reason why city work should not be as efficiently and economically done as work for private corporations. The trouble in the past was that in the selection of bureau chiefs the matter of fitness for the task and knowledge of its details was the very last thing to be considered. As far back as 1895 Mayor Strong made a break from established precedent by appointing Colonel Waring Commissioner of Street Cleaning for the sole and at that time novel reason that Colonel Waring was a sanitary engineer who knew how to clean the city streets and to keep them clean. That was the first object-lesson for New York of the efficiency test in public service. It proved to be so effective a lesson that New York has never forgotten it, even if the politicians have. When Mayor Gaynor announced his appointments it was seen that practically all of them conformed to the Waring standard. Questions about "pull" and backing seemed idle and meaningless, for the simple fact was recognized that each man appointed to a commissionership or other responsible post was placed there because of special qualifications for that particular work.

PERSONNEL OF THE NEW ADMINISTRATION

To illustrate: Kingsley L. Martin, appointed Commissioner of Bridges, has been chief engineer of the Bridge Department, and in accepting the commissionership he sustains a reduction in salary. Commissioner Martin's father, C. C. Martin, was engineer of the old Brooklyn Bridge and the Commissioner himself has been employed in the construction of the newer bridges. The name of father or son is on each one of the four splendid structures which now span the East River. With the exception of a brief period of service in the navy during the war with Spain, Commissioner Martin has been grappling with bridge problems all his life,—and with the special technical problems pertaining to the bridges of Greater New York. He has an exceptional equipment for the post to which Mayor Gaynor has assigned him.

Another instance of high-grade technical ability retained in the service of the city is the appointment of Dr. Ernst J. Lederle as Health Commissioner at a compensation only half what he was receiving in outside employment, which he was compelled to give up. Dr. Lederle held the same office in Mayor Low's administration. He reorganized the department at that time and instituted many reforms. Dr. Lederle is an expert sanitary chemist of the highest professional standing. The city is fortunate in securing his services.

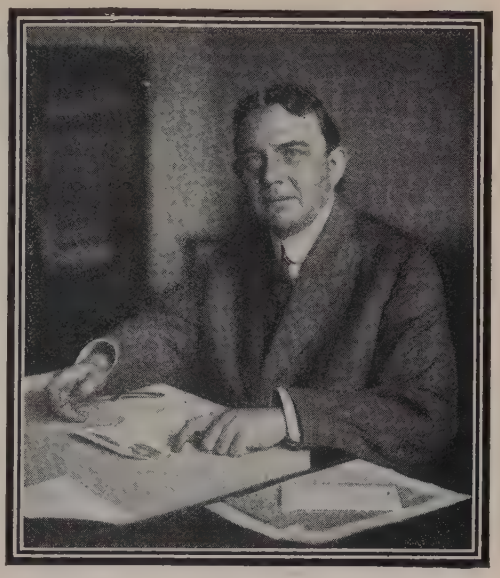
One of the most important of the city departments is that of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity. As head of this department Mayor Gaynor chose Mr. Henry S. Thompson, a building contractor accustomed to dealing with big problems of construction, and said to possess a special aptitude for adminis-

tration. He will have ample scope for his abilities in that direction in the department over which he presides. He has already effected many economies of organization, one of the most vital of which is the consolidation of the engineering force, which was formerly organized in separate detachments for the several boroughs, with practically no cooperation. The Deputy Commissioner, Dr. Edward W. Bemis, was for eight years head of the Cleveland (Ohio) Water Supply Department, and has long been an accepted expert authority on the municipal control of public utilities. Dr. Bemis is an ardent advocate of the meter system of selling water, as opposed to the archaic frontage system which still prevails in New York, and to which, it is charged, a great part of the enormous waste of water that is taken as a matter of course in the metropolis is directly due. Within the first month after taking office economies of administration amounting to more than $200,000 a year were instituted by Commissioners Thompson and Bemis. Dr. Bemis is an Amherst and Johns Hopkins man and an economist of wide repute.

Commissioner Charles B. Stover, President of the Park Board, was a pioneer in the efforts to provide playgrounds and athletic fields for the children of New York's great East Side. A graduate of Lafayette College and of Union Theological Seminary and for some time a student in Germany, Mr. Stover has been for the past twenty years interested in settlement work in New York. His appointment is a recognition of the social rather than the esthetic side of park administration. Mr. Stover is an advocate of public meeting-places in the parks, of the extension of the free concert system, and in general of increased park privileges for the people.

Mr. John J. Murphy, like Mr. Stover, has been for many years in close touch with popular movements in New York, and is a member of the People's Institute. He was for a number of years secretary of the Citizens' Union, and has taken an active part in political reform movements.

MR. JOHN PURROY MITCHEL
(President of the Board of Aldermen)



MR. WILLIAM A. PRENDERGAST
(Comptroller)

It was doubtless because of Mr. Murphy's knowledge of the congested quarters of the city that Mayor Gaynor made him Tenement House Commissioner.

The new Commissioner of Docks and Ferries, Mr. Calvin B. Tomkins, is a member of the Board of Trade and Transportation and has made a special study of the various problems of water transportation relating to the port of New York. Mr. Tomkins is president of the Municipal Art Society, and has given much attention to the development of a city plan. He is an advocate of the municipal ownership of public utilities.

Fire Commissioner Rhinelander Waldo, one of the few Tammany men to hold responsible positions in this administration, had served in the city government as Deputy Police Commissioner for four years prior to his appointment by Mayor Gaynor to the fire commissionership. Soon after entering on the duties of his new position Commissioner Waldo learned that candidates for the position of fire-

DR. EDWARD W. BEMIS
(Deputy Commissioner of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity)

MR. HENRY S. THOMPSON
(Commissioner of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity)

MR. KINGSLEY L. MARTIN
(Commissioner of Bridges)

men were complaining that no matter how high a percentage they might get on the Civil Service examination there was no chance of appointment unless the candidate had the right kind of "pull." The Commissioner investigated and found that fifteen young men with a high percentage on their examinations were passed over when appointments were made. Commissioner Waldo thereupon sent to the Civil Service Commission for a recertification of the names in question and after subjecting the men to a physical examination by Fire Department surgeons he immediately gave them appointments on the force. The incident is not without interest as a sidelight on the workings of the merit system in New York and as a revelation of a distinctly new brand of Tammany department chief.

For Corporation Counsel Mayor Gaynor selected Mr. Archibald R. Watson, formerly editor of *Bench and Bar* and a lawyer of high standing, especially in the field of municipal law. As City Chamberlain he appointed his former law partner, Mr. Charles H. Hyde. Mr. Michael J. Drummond was chosen to head the Charities Department and Mr. Patrick A. Whitney for the Department of Corrections. Both Mr. Whitney and Mr. Drummond are members of Tammany Hall.

As Commissioner of Accounts, the Mayor appointed Mr. Raymond P. Fosdick, a young lawyer, who as chief examiner of accounts had been associated with Mr. Mitchel in probing some of the scandals of the past administration. Now it happens that Mr. Fosdick is especially well suited, by training and experience, as well as natural aptitude, for a new task to which the Mayor has assigned him. That is the investigation of complaints that are daily made by citizens regarding alleged misconduct on the part of city officials. These complaints are very numerous; many of them are frivolous, ill-considered, and unjust. The difficulty in the past has been that no satisfactory system existed for the sifting of charges and the determination of their merits. In nearly every case the matter was referred to the accused official and his unsupported statement was accepted as final. Mayor Gaynor refused to tolerate a wholesale "whitewashing" apparatus of that sort, and one of his first steps was to charge the Commissioner of Accounts with the duty of investigating every complaint that comes to the Mayor's office. The results of only a few of these investigations have been published, but it is understood that the new procedure has led to some highly important disclosures. It is believed that wrongdoing on the part of the city's employees has been rendered far more difficult and less likely to be repeated in the future.

The reappointment of Mr. Lawson Purdy

MR. JOHN J. MURPHY
(Tenement-House Commissioner)

MR. CHARLES B. STOVER
(President of the Park Board)

DR. ERNST J. LEDERLE
(Commissioner of Health)

as President of the Board of Taxes and Assessments won general approval. This is one of the positions in which expert knowledge, acquired by practical experience, is indispensable. As to Mr. Purdy's qualifications in this respect there is only one opinion. In this as in several other departments the Mayor has not been disposed to make radical changes. He has encouraged "Big Bill" Edwards, the stalwart Commissioner of Street-Cleaning, who "holds over" from the McClellan administration, to add more football players to his force, in order to cope the more successfully with the snowfalls which have cost the city a million dollars in the past three months. So far as the Police Department is concerned the Mayor is virtually the Commissioner and has been from

MR. ARCHIBALD R. WATSON
(Corporation Counsel)

MR. CHARLES H. HYDE
(City Chamberlain)

MR. LAWSON PURDY
(President of the Tax Board)

the first. He is quietly finding out in his own way things that it was quite impossible for an executive to learn through the old, accepted channels of information. The newspapers, we may be assured, have not got hold of more than a fractional part of what the Mayor has acquired by his own peculiar processes. The police problem in New York is now, as it has always been, the vital persistent problem of municipal government. The mere appointment of a Commissioner will not solve it. The one thing that may be counted on to help toward a solution is the consistent, unwearying effort to flood the dark places with light. The same kind of publicity that is doing so much to improve the quality of New York's government in other departments is needed in the innermost recesses of the police organization. The Mayor's efforts in this direction cannot fail to accomplish much good.

MR. RAYMOND B. FOSDICK
(Commissioner of Accounts)

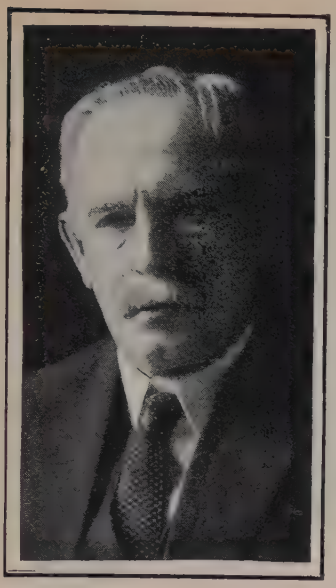
SAVING MONEY FOR THE CITY

While there has been nothing like a "clean sweep" in the city offices, hundreds of old employees being retained even when not protected by the Civil Service rules, there has been little hesitancy in getting rid of useless officials where the public business would have been blocked by their retention. A case in point was the Board of Aqueduct Commissioners, whose duty it was to supervise the acquisition of land and water rights for the Croton water supply. Their work was practically completed five years ago, but on one pretext or another these four commissioners continued to draw $5000 salaries and to accumulate charges against the city amounting to over $200,000 a year. Mayor Gaynor took the bull by the horns, summarily removed the old commissioners from office, and appointed a new board with specific instructions to wind up the affairs of their office within thirty days, if possible, on the understanding that as soon as this should be effected their official tenure would terminate.

Many instances might be cited of economies in the various departments within the first five or six weeks of the new year. In the Park Department many employees were discharged as soon as it was ascertained that they had no definite duties to perform. Perhaps the greatest reductions in pay-rolls were accomplished in the Water Department, where the annual savings from this source already brought about are estimated at over $200,000. In the Fire Department something like $40,000 has been saved. Taking into account the reductions in the pay-rolls of the borough governments, probably it would be well within the facts to estimate the total savings to date to the citizens of Greater New York at $600,000. It is not, however, in the cutting off or reduction of salaries that the most fundamental economies have been instituted. In some of the bureaus there has been a readjustment of salaries which has resulted in little or no reduction in the aggregate, but which must eventually bring about a very material increase in the actual work performed. The results cannot, of course, be estimated in dollars and cents. Several of the department heads have found it possible to dispense with many of the city automobiles, the use and misuse of which had become a public scandal. City Chamberlain Hyde, by a simple change in printing the form of warrant used by the city, effected a saving of many thousands of dollars per annum. Many instances of this kind might be enumerated, but the members of Mayor Gaynor's official family are not seeking glory for the administration through reductions in pay-rolls or the cutting of needless expenditures. They are working for something far more fundamental and permanent,—namely, such a reorganization of the public business that excrescences like those that are now being cut off will never again be able to grow and thrive on the body politic.

OTHER ARMS OF THE CITY GOVERNMENT

In the Finance Department there has been no haste in reorganizing the bureaus, but cer-



MR. PATRICK A. WHITNEY
(Commissioner of Correction)

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MR. RHINELANDER WALDO
(Fire Commissioner)

MR. CALVIN TOMPKINS
(Commissioner of Docks)

tain changes in routine that had been approved in effect before Comptroller Prendergast took office have now been worked out to a logical conclusion. Although some employees have been discharged because not needed for the work that had been assigned to them, it has been found that other bureaus of the department require additional help, so that money saved in one direction will have to be used in others. It is maintained by those in a position to know that no Comptroller of New York City has ever entered on his duties with so full a knowledge of the workings of his department as that possessed by Mr. Prendergast.

Apart from their votes in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the several borough presidents of the greater city have positions of great importance. They virtually control the streets, sewers, and public buildings of their respective boroughs. The Borough of Manhattan, over which the Hon. George McAneny now presides, has a population about equal to that of the entire city of Chicago. If any man in New York is familiar with the affairs of Manhattan it is Mr. McAneny, who prepared the charges against Borough President Ahearn which resulted in that official's removal by Governor Hughes. President McAneny has given special attention to municipal matters for many years. He has named as his Commissioner of Public Works Mr. Edgar V. Frothingham. The annual expenditure by the borough government for all purposes is about $4,000,000.

The other borough presidents,—Alfred E. Steers in Brooklyn, Cyrus C. Miller in the Bronx, Lawrence Gresser in Queens, and George Cromwell in Richmond,—have entered on their duties with full knowledge that their offices are under close scrutiny. With the exception of Mr. Cromwell, of Richmond, and Mr. Gresser, of Queens, they are new men in their respective positions, and in the recent past there have been scandals in the several borough administrations over which they now preside. In the Bronx and in Queens those scandals were as flagrant as the Ahearn régime in Manhattan. Brooklyn, next to Manhattan, is the most important of the borough governments, its annual budget amounting to about $2,000,000. In that borough the position of Commissioner of Public Works, the most important office under President Steers, is held by Lewis H. Pounds. The five borough presidents and the President of the Board of Aldermen are co-operating intelligently and effectively with the Mayor and the Comptroller in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The somewhat cumbrous machinery of the greater city's government was never under more even control than now.

CATTLE ON THE RANGE

OUR BEEF SUPPLY AS A GREAT BUSINESS

BY WALTER C. HOWEY

LET fancy endow Adam with the gift of eternal life. Start him, the day of his creation, to piling up silver dollars at the rate of a dollar a minute. Permit him to work incessantly eight hours a day the week long down the ages. He will lack $663,000,000 of having enough money to pay for all the live cattle in the United States in the year 1910.

Such is the magnitude of the beef industry. The annual report of the Department of Agriculture, issued a few days ago, indicates that there are 96,658,000 cattle in the country. At the estimated increase in population over the census of 1900 this provides a cow or a bullock for every human inhabitant, adult or minor.

It is but natural that the citizen should manifest interest in ascertaining what becomes of his beef. It is his right to be informed that the source of his beefsteak is rapidly diminishing, that the number of cattle decreases on a ratio with the increase in population, that the great cattle ranges, which the late Frederic Remington loved to picture, are on the verge of consignment to memory, and that there are mighty elements besides the beef trust which enter into this thing we call " the cost of living."

The trail of the beefsteak begins with the far Western cattle range. It follows devious turnings, back paths, and criss-crosses before it winds up at the dinner table.

THE WESTERN RANGE INDUSTRY

The range cattle industry was founded by the Yankee as a resource. The early pioneers who pierced the Western plains were amazed to discover cattle there in mighty herds,—lean, long-horned, half-wild beasts. Their sires were the blooded battlers of the bull-pens of old Madrid. Spanish galleons brought them over to provide amusement for the Castilians who seized upon the land of the Aztecs in search of fabled gold, rubies, and opals in 1519.

A few of these bulls escaped. A few bulls and cows were turned loose when the Spaniards set sail for home with ingot-laden ships. For more than three centuries they roamed the plains, drifting northward to the fertile valleys of the Panhandle district. They multiplied until the roar of their hoofs was as thunder when the invasion of the Yankee sent them fleeing down the prairies.

The settlers took possession of these herds as a prospector takes possession of his mine. They built rude houses of posts and mud

and gave them the Mexican name, *ranchos*. From this came the derivative, ranch, by which they designated their holdings.

As there was no law by which they could map out and hold certain portions of land, the early ranchmen made their own laws. They could not afford to fence in the land, even were it possible to lay claim to tracts that would be respected and recognized. To establish the rights of all they adopted an expedient from the dark ages when a scar was burned upon the brow of a criminal to distinguish him from honest men.

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"ROUNDING UP" CATTLE FOR THE MARKET

Each ranchman selected a distinguishing brand. In the early days this brand consisted of his initials. If his initials were the same as those of an earlier ranchman the newcomer would vary the brand by separating the initials with a bar, or surrounding them with a diamond, a half-circle, or a square. The finder of an unbranded cow or steer was entitled to burn his brand into the flank of that animal. By this act he established his ownership.

When the westward movement became pronounced the ranchmen of different communities established associations. These associations kept "brand books," in which the different brands and their owners were registered. To-day the ranch associations and their brand books are recognized by law.

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BRANDING THE CALVES ON A TEXAS RANCH

In the spring of every year the ranchmen united with their cowboys or *rancheros* for the early round-up. This took place at the period when the cows had not yet weaned their calves. The territory covered consisted of hundreds of square miles. The cowboys set forth in small bands. Each outfit was accompanied by a "chuck wagon," a cook, and a relay of horses. The work, which covered weeks of time, consisted of driving the herds toward the center of a constantly narrowing circle. Each ranchman was entitled to put his brand upon the flank of the calf following the cow, which

bore that brand. The herds were then permitted to return to grazing.

The late round-up took place in the fall. The beef cattle, fattened by the summer's feeding, were cut out from the herds. These beef cattle were turned into the "beef herds" and trailed toward the nearest railroad stations, where they were shipped to market.

This story is told in the past tense, because it is history. As the Territories,—Kansas, Missouri, Texas, Nevada, and Oklahoma,—were admitted to the Union as States the free grazing areas shrank. The homestead and fencing laws, which permitted a settler to take title to his half or quarter section of ground, fence it in, and repel invasion, sounded the doom of the ranges. It became necessary to own the land on which the cattle grazed, as well as to own the cattle, in order to operate a ranch.

The grazing land of the West differs materially from the lawns and pastures of the Eastern and Midland States. The ground is barren save for isolated spots or patches due to the fertilization of the herds. What vegetation exists is known as bunch grass or buffalo grass. From 7 to 10 acres is necessary to the sustenance of an individual animal. Water is infrequent and in isolated spots, known as water-holes. The homestead law permitted settlers, not particular as to ethics, to squat upon these springs or water-holes, fence them in, and levy staggering tribute akin to blackmail upon the ranchmen. Cattle must have water twice a day. The homesteading of the water supply by the "nesters," as these squatters were called, rendered thousands of acres of free range useless to ranchmen.

Gradually the ranchmen with small means gave way to individuals and syndicates possessing capital enough to buy and own the ranges. The operations of the "big outfits" called for expenditures running into the millions of dollars. Notable among these was the great X I T Ranch of the Capital City Land & Cattle Company, which owned 4236 square miles in the heart of Texas. This is equal to an area eighty times that occupied by the District of Columbia.

The land was ceded to a syndicate headed by the late Senator Charles B. Farwell for erecting the Texas State House. The company bought the brands and herds of a score of small ranchmen. A half-million head of cattle roamed its grounds at one time. Its single shipments to market often consisted of from a dozen to twenty trainloads. Among other big ranches were the Childress Ranch, of 380,000 acres; the Hutton Ranch, owned by Judge Hutton, of Kansas City, and the J A Ranch, the cattle of which bore the brand of Mrs. Jack Adair, a society woman who lives in London.

The ranchmen bred cattle along scientific lines. They imported blooded stock for inbreeding purposes, Shorthorns and Herefords. So thoroughly did they improve the strain of the lean, wild Texan Longhorns that the quality and quantity of beef on a single steer was raised from 50 to 100 per cent. They bred for broad backs, deep ribs, massive hindquarters, and small udders.

Within the last five years these great ranches of the Southwest have been broken up. The national irrigation movement was a factor. The land-promotion departments of the continental railroad systems carried thousands of ambitious farmers into the district. The propaganda of scientific agriculture, the oil strikes, and the inroads of the immigrant were elements which led the big ranching syndicates to cut up their vast areas and sell them piecemeal. Even the packers aided in the consignment of romantic ranching to the realms of reminiscence. The great Childress Ranch was bought by the Swifts, cut up and parceled out to small farmers. Within the last thirty days Edward F. Morris, president of Nelson Morris & Co., purchased the Riverside Ranch, in the State of Chihuahua, Mexico. It is bounded on the north by the Rio Grande River and is 30 miles south of Sierra Blanca, Texas, the junction of the Southern Pacific and the Sierra Pacific railroads. The ranch was purchased from Dr. W. S. Woods, of Kansas City, the consideration being $1,000,000. It consisted of 1,256,000 acres,—more than the area of the State of Rhode Island. It is said that this ranch will be broken up into small plantations.

The scene of big operations, with the exception of isolated instances, shifted suddenly to the Northwest. Big ranch syndicates located in parts of Colorado, Idaho, Wyoming, Montana, and the Dakotas. The term "Texas" was superseded by the word "Western," to designate the cattle grown in the Northwest. This was not due so much to the change in topography as to the distinction in beef value. Years of inbreeding and improvement have sent the pure-blooded Texas Longhorn the way of the buffalo,—on the road to extinction.

BUYERS IN THE SELLING PEN, CHICAGO

New elements, such as the sparseness of grass in the mountain districts, the loss of cattle through blizzards and heavy snows, the decreased fertility of cows, and the necessity for double-wintering cattle before they became prime for market, added hazards to the business which equalized the advantages of weight and beef quality gained by years of scientific breeding.

Among the great ranches of the Northwest in the last decade ranking favorably in area with those of the Panhandle district were those of Harris Franklin, Pierre Wilbaux, the Western Ranches, the Lake Tomb, the Empire Cattle, and the Montana Cattle companies.

FROM THE RANGE TO THE MARKET

To-day even the big outfits of the Northwest are fast closing out. The opening of the Rosebud and other Indian reservations to homesteaders, the "nesting" of settlers about the water-holes, the irrigation farm movement, and the industry of the land departments of the continental railroads have wound up the business of all the great grass-feeding outfitters above mentioned, whose single consignments to market filled a dozen long trains. The average shipment to-day is of from two to five carloads of forty head each.

The progress of the grass-fed or range cattle to market to-day does not differ materially from that of the early periods of the industry. The "round-ups" remain, though robbed of romance. The cowboys still wear chaps, though divested of six-shooters. The cattle of two or more ranches are loaded and shipped to market together. No effort is made at the round-up to sort by brands. It takes from four to seven days for the shipments to reach the markets. The trains are stopped at intervals of from twenty-eight to thirty-six hours. The cattle are released, fed, and watered. This is a legal requirement.

Upon reaching the stockyards the cattle are unloaded from the chutes, delivered by the railroads to the stockyards companies, which own the pens, and in turn handed over by the stockyards companies to the commission houses, or middlemen.

All sales of cattle, from grower to packer, are conducted by these commission men. They grade and sort the cattle. If the animals are uneven in flesh they sort for flesh; if uneven in size, they sort for size. The fat cattle are sold to the packers for killing.

The thin cattle, if old enough to eat corn, are sold as feeders; if not, as stockers.

Before being weighed the cattle are examined by men known as brand inspectors. The brand inspectors keep official records of the different cattle markings and the registered owners of the same throughout the country. The inspectors are posted through the live-stock associations of the various States. Brands are recorded with the Secretary of State much as a deed to real estate is recorded. When the ownership of a brand passes from one individual to another it is consummated in writing. Oftentimes the brand consists not only of the scar burned into the flank of the animal, but of a peculiar combination of ear notches or croppings.

Upon completing a sale of cattle the commission men give bills of sale to the persons designated by the brand inspectors as the registered owners. The progress of the fat cattle from this point is through the killing pens to the chilling rooms and thence to the butcher-shop.

The movement of the thin cattle is a back track. It provides employment and livelihood for a new group of individuals distinguished from ranchmen by the various titles of "short feeders," "warmers-up," or short-time buyers. Their domain is in the Central States contiguous to the markets. The ranchmen depend for profits upon long-time feeding over wide areas of grass which require no cultivation. The short feeders base profits upon speedy fattening with high-grade and expensive provender. They turn their yellow corn into yellow gold through the alchemy of cattle.

The cattle known as feeders are warmed up or fattened in a few months. Cattle designated as stockers weigh less than 800 pounds and are too young to eat corn. They are allowed to grow a few months before entering upon the process of "warming up." Among the various foods that enter into the warming-up process are corn, hay, potatoes, low-grade flour, linseed meal, cottonseed hulls, sugar-beet pulp, alfalfa, and the mash rejected by the distilleries after whisky has been extracted. Corn and hay are the most popular fatteners. Cattle fed upon distillery mash are killed for quick consumption in communities contiguous to the markets. Their beef is not of high quality. It will not keep. The distillery feeds are located at Peoria, Ill.; Lexington, Ky., and points in Indiana.

Such is the history of the grass-fed animal, the Texan and the Western. There is a third branch of the industry confined to the rich stock farms and cultivated regions of the Eastern and Central States. It embraces stock-raising in its most highly scientific state, with pure-bred herds and high-power feeding, as well as instances where the breeding of cattle is an incident in the pursuit of general agriculture. To distinguish them from Texans and Westerns the cattle are known as natives.

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GENERAL VIEW OF THE GREAT UNION STOCK YARDS, CHICAGO

DAIRY-FARMING REDUCES THE BEEF OUTPUT

Cattle-growing in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys is conducted on a more expensive scale to-day than it was in the past twenty years. Corn has risen in price from 20 cents to 60 cents a bushel. The value of farm land has increased from $25 to $50 to $75 and $200 an

IN THE CUTTING ROOM

acre. The scientific farmers turned out every year by such institutions as the agricultural colleges of Iowa, Illinois, and Wisconsin have made pasture lands yield greater profits through cultivation and crop-raising. The high prices brought by dairy products have led to an increase in the cultivation of milch cows.

Milch cows are not sought by butchers. A capacious udder goes with a lank hind-quarter. The interior mechanism of a Holstein or a Jersey turns food into milk. That of a Hereford or Shorthorn turns it into beef. Despite the bugaboo of the automobile the industry of raising horses and mules has grown. The facts are set forth in the following table from the Government census of live-stock in the United States:

Year.	Beef cattle.	Milch cows.	Horses.	Mules.
1910...	47,279,000	21,801,000	21,040,000	4,123,000
1909...	49,379,000	21,711,000	20,640,000	4,053,000

This indicates a decrease of 2,100,000 beef cattle, as compared to an increase of 90,000 milch cows, 400,000 horses, and 70,000 mules. The fact that there is a decrease of 6,365,000 hogs on American farms in 1910 as compared to 1909 may not be germane to this article, but it is significant.

THE LOCAL BUTCHER SUCCUMBS TO THE TRUST

"Jim" Black and John Hackett were rival butchers in the town of Fort Dodge, Iowa, twenty years ago. Each owned his own abbatoir on the outskirts of the town. They bought their cattle, hogs, and sheep from the farmers and stock-raisers of the outlying agricultural districts. They butchered for meat. When Mr. Black or Mr. Hackett butchered a beef he figured his profit on the steaks and roasts, lard and tallow, tongue and hide, sausage-meat, and stews. The horns, hoofs, bones, casings, blood, and fertilizer were consigned to a pile where now grows the greenest grass in Webster County. Out of the goodness of their hearts Mr. Black and Mr. Hackett gave away the liver to fishermen and dog owners. Oftentimes they did the same with rich soup bones to such customers as owned chickens or dogs.

One day a large yellow car with side-doors 8 inches thick was set off on a siding of the Illinois Central Railroad. Simultaneously a new meat market appeared on Central Avenue. The proprietor of the new meat market did not give away soup bones or liver. But he did cut prices on meat that neither Hackett nor Black could equal and live. Hackett and Black were both astute men. They closed out their meat markets, left the deserted slaughter-houses as a source of interest solely to little boys afraid of spooks, and went out of the meat business. Whereupon the price of meat in Fort Dodge began to soar again. The instance marks the retreat of the small

butcher before the invasion of the great packer, who butchers not only for meat but for by-product.

Out of the meat business went John Hackett and Jim Black into the cattle business. They were among the pioneers of Iowa to get $1 a bushel for 25-cent corn by turning the corn into beef. They bought young steers from the ranches and farms and put them through the warming-up process. They bought young steers because the older ones were good rustlers and could fatten on bunch grass without the aid of corn.

THE COST OF BEEF ON THE HOOF

From the packers, who slaughtered for beef and for by-product, they learned the value of detail and close figuring. It is the detail of men who learned from the packers that makes it possible to secure estimates of the several increments in price between the range and the sales of the retail butcher to the consumer. The following illustration deals with a steer of medium quality and price. Assuming that the steer is raised in one of the Middle Western States, where 2 acres of pasture provides sufficient forage for a single animal, the first cost is as follows:

Interest on sire and dam at $100 for one year previous to the calf's birth, at 6 per cent.	$6.00
Interest on two acres pasture land at $75 per acre, $150, at 6 per cent	27.00
Winter hay for three years, 3 tons at $3 per ton	9.00
Cost to farmer of three-year-old	$42.00

The steer at the end of three years will have reached the average weight of 1050 pounds. It has a value of 4 cents a pound, or $42 on the farm. The cost of shipment to market varies from 16 cents per hundredweight in the districts bordering the market to 50 cents per hundredweight on the far Western ranges. The shrinkage in weight of the steer in the period of transportation varies from 50 pounds to 150 pounds, in accordance with the length of haul.

The example cited will take into consideration the short haul and the slight shrinkage. This lands our bullock at the stockyards as a "feeder," weighing 1000 pounds, with a claim lodged against him by the railroads of $2 and incidentals totaling $1.

The average price for steers of this quality and weight, paid at the Union Stock Yards in Chicago in 1909, was $4.50 per hundredweight. Shrinkage and railroad tariff equalize the price of the bullock at market and afford the cattleman $42 for his steer.

The farmer may be satisfied with this profit on his lean steer. He may decide to transform the animal into the finished product for killing. Or he may turn the bullock over on the farm to the professional feeder who makes a specialty of the warming-up process.

If the feeder is an expert the warming-up process will consume four months' time, during which the steer will have eaten 60 bushels of corn and gained flesh at the rate of from 2 to 2½ pounds a day. Expert feeders can make steers gain 3½ pounds a day. The average is 2½ pounds a day. At the average price of last year, 60 cents a bushel, the warming-up process will have added $36 to the cost of the steer. If he grows his own corn the feeder will find one profit in the marketing of his corn on the farm without expense of hauling. The roughness in speedy feeding will yield 20 per cent. of the original value of the corn in fertilizer. It will also provide food for hogs, the estimated rate being two hogs to a steer. This will equalize the feeder's labor and the cost of hay, bedding, etc.

At the end of the feeding period the bullock will weigh 1350 pounds in the feed-lot. He will shrink 50 pounds in weight during the trip to market. Before final delivery to the packer or killer the following tariffs will have been piled up against the steer:

Transportation from feed-lots to yards, 1300 lb. at 20 cents per hundredweight	$2.60
Switching charge of terminal railroad, at $2 per car, or 10 cents per head	.10
Yardage charge of stockyards company	.25
Selling, weighing, and remitting by commission house	.50
Total	$3.45

The actual cost of the steer to the feeder, including initial price, $42, corn $36, and incidental charges for marketing, $3.45, totals $81.45. At the average market price of last year for medium steers he will bring $6.50 per hundred pounds, or $84.50. This leaves the feeder's profit on 120 days' warming-up as $3.05.

In October of 1909 short-fed steers that had been put on corn but forty and sixty days sold upwards of $7 and $7.50 per hundredweight at the Chicago Stock Yards. The average price of native steers for the year was $6.35.

WHAT THE PACKERS GET

The steer, having been delivered to the packers and driven to the killing beds, it is

necessary to look to the packers for figures on their profits. A fair dressing steer,—one which yields a fair percentage of its live weight in beef,—will dress 58.5 per cent. Presuming the bullock to be a fair dresser, 58.5 per cent. of 1300 pounds is 760.5 pounds of beef distributed in the following proportions:

	Per cent. of carcass.	Weight in pounds.	Average, 1909, market price per lb.	Full value.
Ribs	9.5	72	$0.17	$12.24
Loin	17.1	130	.19½	25.35
Rounds	23.6	180	.08	14.40
Chucks	24.5	186	.07	13.02
Plates	12.4	95	.05½	5.22
Shanks	4.2	32	.04½	1.44
Flanks	3.9	30	.05½	1.65
Suet	4	31	.10	3.10
Trimming	0.7	5	.04½	0.23
Totals	99.9	761		$76.65

This indicates why John Hackett and Jim Black, who butchered for beef at their little slaughter-houses, cannot afford to compete with the big packers when the steer on the hoof sells for $84.50 and the market value of the dressed meat is $7.75 less.

THE PROFIT COMES FROM THE BY-PRODUCTS

The profit to the packers comes from the ingenious utilization of the by-products. This is shown by the following exhibit of values:

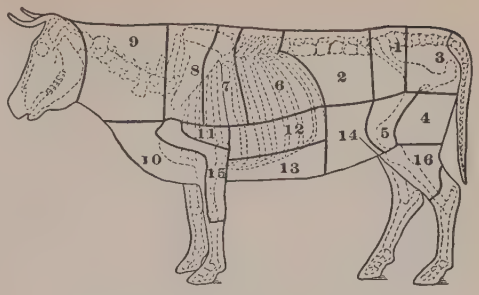

DIAGRAM SHOWING CUTS OF BEEF

(1 and 2, loin; 3, rump; 4, round; 5, top sirloin; 6, prime ribs; 7, blade; 8, chuck; 9, neck; 10, brisket; 11, cross-rib; 12, plate; 13, navel; 14, flank; 15, shoulder; 16, leg)

Hide, 70 lb. at 12c.	$8.40	Casings	$1.00
Heart	.15	Tail	.07
Liver	.50	Hanging tender	.10
Tongue	.50	Blood	.23
Cheek meat	.20	Tripe	.25
Head and feet	.35		
Rough tallow	2.00	Total	$13.75

The sum of the value of the by-products and the value of the beef is $90.40. The cost of buying, killing, cooling, and marketing, as nearly as it is possible to estimate from the figures of the packers, is $2.50 per head per annum. This embraces maintenance and operation of plant, including buying, killing, refrigerating and selling, insurance, and interest on money invested. The difference between the value of the finished product, $90.40, and the cost of the steer on the hoof, $84.50, plus the cost of maintenance, etc., $2.50, is $3.40,—the profit to the packer.

The extensive laboratories and experimental departments maintained by the packers have made these profits possible. The ultimate profit, from the working up of the by-products, is impossible to estimate. From the hoofs neat's-foot oil is produced. It is used in softening leather. Glue and gelatine are also worked up from the same source. From the knuckle bones lampblack is made. Tannin is extracted from the brain. It is used in the treatment of hides. The

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DRESSING BEEF, REMOVING HIDES, AND SPLITTING BACK BONES IN ONE OF THE LARGE CHICAGO STOCK YARDS

blood is dried, compressed in machines, and emerges in the form of buttons. It is also used to clarify sugar. A process of extracting albumen from the blood is also brought into play by the ingenious packers. From the fats are extracted glycerine, oleo oil, and the body for toilet and laundry soaps. Pepsin is secured from the stomach. The hoofs and horns are worked up into buttons and combs. The shank and jaw bones are worked up into knife handles and piano keys. Even the scraps and crumbs of meat are saved to come forth upon the market after having been reduced by boiling to extract of beef. From the tankage and fertilizer such pharmaceutical extracts are obtained as nitrates and ammonia.

There are a half-hundred more distillations and extracts from the by-products aside from those mentioned. This will suffice, however, to illustrate how the packers have raised the meat business from the plane of the slaughter-house to a science that counts its profits on half the income from the tankage which small butchers formerly threw away.

In summing up the three operations through which our steer has now passed we find, exclusive of small tariffs of railroad, commission man, and stock-yards company, the following table of profits:

Farmer's profit on "feeder steer"	$6.00
Feeder's profit	3.05
Packer's profit	3.40
Total	$12.45

It should be stated out of fairness that this estimate takes into consideration the most favorable circumstances. If the feeder buys the feeder steer in Chicago and ships to the feed-lots he must consider the cost of transportation both ways. Should the Federal meat inspectors find the animal afflicted with lump jaw or other disease, either farmer or feeder faces a loss. Should the Federal meat inspector condemn the beef after slaughter, the loss may be shouldered by the packer.

RETAILERS' PROFITS

The next process in the evolution of the beefsteak is the retail market. There are no commission men between the packers and the butchers. Sales are direct. Beef is a perishable product and will not permit of delay in its progress from the packing house to the retail customer. The elimination of the jobber or commission dealer in fresh meats indicates a saving in the handling of the product. This also enables the packers to maintain a close touch with the fluctuations in consumption. It strengthens the grip of the credit departments on the retail butchers. No bank or clearing house is better posted in its credits than are the packers. From time to time the packers have threatened to absorb the retail markets in the large centers of population. Recently the Cudahy Sales Company was incorporated in the State of Illinois, with the object of establishing and operating retail markets on a scale somewhat similar to that of the American Tobacco Company in carrying its product direct to the consumer through the stores of the United Cigar Stores Company throughout the country.

The profits of the retail butcher cannot be estimated with the nicety of the operations heretofore discussed. A canvass by telegraph of the retail prices prevailing on ribs and loins in eight different centers on the same day brought figures that varied from 40 to 90 per cent. The charge of the retailer varies in proportion to the quality of meat which he handles, the extent of his sales, the proportion of his customers who carry their purchases home to those who require delivery, the relative standing in society of the community from which he draws custom, and the personal whim of the butcher himself.

When the butcher buys from the packer he has three grades of meat from which to select. These grades are marked, respectively, No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3. The prices on the more expensive cuts vary from four cents between No. 1 and No. 2 to six cents between No. 2 and No. 3. Few butchers mark their loins and ribs No. 1, 2, and 3, with the variations in price for the benefit of the consumer.

An average, struck from the books of six Chicago retail butchers for the year 1909, summer and winter included, indicated the following prices as representative of the cost of good grade beef to the retailer in that year:

Rib roast	20 cents per pound.
Sirloin steak	20 cents per pound.
Porterhouse	26 cents per pound.
Round steak	15 cents per pound.

In order properly to compute the profits of the retailer, however, it is necessary to make a comparison of the cost of beef to the butcher upon a specific date with the price which the butcher asked of the retailer upon that date. On February 8 the market price of No. 1 dressed beef on South Water Street, Chicago, as compared with

the retail prices of six representative butchers, was as follows:

	Weight in pounds from single steer.	Packers' price per pound. Cents.	Butchers' price per pound. Cents.	Difference in retail price on one steer.
Ribs	72	17½	22	$3.24
Loin	130	22	26	5.20
Rounds	180	8½	15	11.70
Chucks	186	8	13	9.30
Plate	95	7	10	2.85
Total butcher's profit on beef				$32.29

When I gazed at them in amazement the butchers explained that the table, though mathematically correct, was not a criterion of sales or profits. While it is possible for them to sell the 72 pounds of rib roast at 22 cents and the 130 pounds of loin at 26 cents, it is absolutely impossible for the butchers to dispose of 180 pounds of round, 186 pounds of chucks, and 95 pounds of plates that go with that same beef. A portion of the cheaper cuts are sold to the retail customers. The remainder goes into hamburger steak, sausage meat, restaurant and boarding-house sales at decreased figures, which barely enable the butcher to equalize on inferior sales. This accounts for the fact that the retail prices of the inferior cuts of meat when bought in small quantities are almost double the wholesale values. Rentals, light, heat, and maintenance, cost of delivery, and a business of small daily sales in comparison to the large sales of other retail branches of industry are the reasons given by the butchers for the noticeable increase in the retail prices of beef over wholesale figures.

The porterhouse steak is the finest cut from the loin. The percentage of porterhouse to sirloin is as one to three. Consequently the price of porterhouse averaged 28 cents in the six Chicago butcher shops when the price of sirloin averaged 22 cents.

There is another phase of the business of the retail meat market which is interesting, if not enlightening. When a consumer orders a porterhouse steak of three pounds, for instance, the butcher cuts the meat on the block, weighs it, and then trims it. The consumer pays for both steak and trimming at the rate of 28 cents a pound. The loss by trimming will average one-half of 1 per cent. However, as the consumer pays for the gross and not the net weight of the steak, he is out one-half of 1 per cent. of three pounds of porterhouse at 28 cents a pound.

The retail butcher does not wrap up the trimming with the steak. He throws it into a box beneath the counter. The contents of this box, for which the consumers have previously paid 28 cents a pound, are sold at the end of the day to the soapmaker at three-quarters of a cent a pound. The retail butcher makes two profits from the trimming.

The various elements which enter into the retail marketing of the product make it impossible to compute the profits of this branch of the industry with any certainty. However, it is a fact that the final stage through which the beefsteak passes before its appearance upon the breakfast table is fraught with as great expense as all of the other operations combined.

THE POWER OF THE MEAT TRUST.

Of the 400 trusts now doing business in the United States the meat trust is unique in its methods and organization. In its infancy it was described by "Moody's Man-

A CALF COOLER IN THE WHOLESALE MARKET, CHICAGO

ual of Corporation Securities" in 1904 as Lesser Industrial Trust No. 80, composed of Armour, Morris, Swift, Cudahy, the National Packing Company, and affiliated interests. The number of plants controlled and acquired was stated to be about fifty-six and total capitalization about $110,000,000. Since then its number of plants and its capitalization have increased materially.

It owns the refrigerating car systems, the various stock-yard companies in Chicago, Kansas City, St. Louis, Omaha, Sioux City, Fort Worth, St. Joseph, and St. Paul. It has packing plants in all of these and many other industrial centers. With the exception of Swift & Co., the stock in its various corporations is closely owned and not upon the market. This makes it difficult to estimate earnings. The capital stock of Swift & Co. was increased in January, 1909, from $50,000,000 to $60,000,000. Upon this capitalization the company has paid dividends of 7 per cent. per annum. The report of the company's business for the fiscal year ending in January, 1909, showed a total volume of business amounting to $240,000,000. The last treasurer's report indicated earnings of $7,600,000, after the deduction of $1,700,000 for depreciation, or the equivalent of 15.2 per cent. on the $50,000,000 of capital standing at that time. No statements of earnings have been made by the other packing companies.

That the meat trust is capable of controlling supply and demand, both of cattle on the hoof and dressed meat, is indicated by the injunction issued by Judge Grosscup in the United States courts restraining it from so doing in 1902.

That the packers have been suspected of conspiracy to regulate trade and commerce since that time is indicated by the various Government prosecutions started in recent years. In 1905 the packers were indicted in the United States courts at Chicago. They escaped prosecution as individuals upon the plea that former United States Commissioner Garfield had obtained, under promise that it would not be used against them, information which was subsequently made the basis for indictments. To-day the packers again find themselves under federal scrutiny. The theory of the prosecution is that the heads of the various packing companies met as directors of the National Packing Company, fixed the prices for that company, and regulated the prices of the other concerns in unison. The investigation is also directed toward the operations by which the New York Butchers' Dressed Meat Company was secretly absorbed some time ago.

SUPPLY FALLING BEHIND DEMAND

However, the fundamental causes of the increase in the price of beef to the consumer are the decrease in supply and the increase in population. The Government estimate of the number of cattle, including cows, in the United States January 1, 1910, as compared with that of the three years previous, shows a steady annual decrease. The figures are as follows:

1907	72,533,996	1909	71,099,000
1908	71,267,000	1910	69,080,000

The report of the Department of Agriculture for February showed a decrease in production in all of the great beef-raising States, as compared with the figures of a year ago, with one exception. There was an increase of 10 per cent. in the number of beef cattle in Wyoming on January 1, 1910, over the number at the beginning of 1909.

The report showed a decrease of 7 per cent. in Texas, 7 per cent. in Oklahoma, 11 per cent. in Arkansas, 7 per cent. in Montana, 2 per cent. in Colorado and Arizona, 4 per cent. in New Mexico, 4 per cent. in North and South Dakota, 6 per cent. in Iowa, 7 per cent. in Kansas, and 5 per cent. in Nebraska. There was an increase of 3 per cent. in Florida and of 1 per cent. in Delaware and South Carolina, but the latter States raise few beef cattle.

The falling off in beef cattle in the past year has been more than two million head, a ratio of decrease amounting to almost 5 per cent. The causes in order of importance may be set forth as follows:

1. Disappearance of free grazing land.
2. Breaking up of the great cattle ranching outfits.
3. Increase in value of pasture land in the Ohio, Mississippi, and Missouri valleys to such an extent that it is hardly profitable to pasture cattle.
4. Increase in the price of corn and similar fattening foods, amounting to 300 per cent., in the past twenty years.
5. Abandonment of the cattle-raising industry by farmers in favor of other pursuits, such as dairy farming, fruit raising, and the cultivation of vegetables upon a scientific basis, with better returns upon the amount of capital invested.

There is one phase of the question of responsibility for the high prices of beef which

leads to the speculation as to whether or not the packers are responsible for the high prices forced upon the retailer.

In Liverpool, No. 1 beef exported from the United States was quoted at 12 cents, and in London it was quoted at 15 cents the same week it was quoted at 17½ cents per pound in the United States.

When asked how they could pay freight and steamship rates on export beef and sell it in England at less than they asked of home consumers, the packers replied that they were losing money on every foreign sale.

SIDES OF BEEF HUNG IN ONE OF THE LARGE COOLING ROOMS

The trade between the United States and Great Britain in fresh beef has fallen off in the last few years. Great lines of refrigerator steamships plying between Argentina and Liverpool have so lowered the price of meat in England that the packers were forced to cut prices. Argentine cattle are cheaper by 30 per cent. than cattle in the United States. The American packers have been loath to lose the London markets. They have bought many packing plants in South America, but they are not credited with control of the packing business there. The packers argue that sales of fresh beef are conducted in the face of a loss because the loss is more than equaled by the profits in the sale of canned products, oleo, oils, tallow, and pork. They say that it is necessary to sell chilled beef in order to uphold the demand for these things.

Although there has been a falling-off in all exports in the past year, the decrease in hog products, oleos, and canned goods is not so marked as that in beef. Exports of beef were $9,592,176 in 1909, as compared with $15,952,670 in 1908. Exports of oleo products were $20,000,000 in value, as compared with $23,000,000 the year before. Exports of pork, bacon, and ham totaled $51,000,000 in 1909, as compared with $60,000,000. The value of the exports on by-products such as sausage casings increased 25 per cent.

The tariff on the importation of live cattle is 27.5 per cent. ad valorem. The tariff on dressed beef is 1½ cents per pound. On other meats it is 25 per cent. ad valorem. It is argued that a reduction of the tariff to permit of the sale of dressed beef and cattle on the hoof from the South American republics, Canada, and Mexico would lower the cost of beefsteak to the consumer materially. It would appear, however, that the Government, in its many losing fights against the packers, has failed to consider tariff reduction as an effective weapon.

Two other elements, each significant in themselves, yet neither open to detailed analysis, enter into the consideration.

THE COLD-STORAGE BUSINESS

One is the cold-storage factor, the importance of which must remain more or less a secret until laid open by an investigation authorized by the Government itself. It is known that every year large stores of eggs, butter, fish, and fowl are gathered up by great syndicates at periods when the market is low. These stores are preserved in ammonia and natural refrigeration plants. There they are held until the original sources of supply are shut off by the rigors of winter. The market is then at the mercy of the syndicates.

Facts concerning the extent of the cold-storage business are impossible to obtain with any degree of accuracy at present. The cold-storage houses are under no laws or regulations save those of the food inspectors. They publish no reports and make no daily, weekly, or annual accountings to the public. Recently the packers have been accused of maintaining a monopoly of this business as an adjunct to the meat industry. That this element must have some important bearing up-

on the high cost of other foodstuffs is apparent. When eggs sell for 60 cents a dozen it is cheaper to subsist on meat. When butter is 40 cents a pound poor persons must buy the packers' oleo.

The packers decline to commit themselves upon this subject. The records of the butter and egg exchanges are admitted to be estimates. As estimates they lack authority. And no nation-wide investigation of this sinister and mysterious factor in the cost of our daily bread has been conducted in behalf of the public.

The fourth big reason for the increase in the price of beef is one which has become a very popular subject for investigation among legislative bodies, labor unions, and women's clubs. It masks under the fascinating title, "the cost of living." It must be mentioned and left to the investigators for further exploitations, with the significant reminder that advances in prices among commodities are sympathetic.

MISTAKES OF THE HOUSEWIFE

The incidental causes of increase in price are to some extent amusing. First among these is the ignorance of the average housewife. It is significant to note in the tables of beef values reproduced in the fore part of this article that while the ribs and loins amount to but 26.6 per cent. of the total weight of the steer, yet they bring on the market half the value of the whole animal. The sole cause for the high value of ribs and loins in proportion to the other cuts is the demand. As a butcher puts it, "The woman with a round steak income has a porterhouse appetite." The demand for porterhouse, sirloin, and rib-roasts is due to the fact that they may be more easily prepared for the table by broiling or baking than the cheaper cuts. The housewife of the days gone by insisted upon doing her own marketing. She selected her cuts in person and perhaps she carried them home herself. The cost in delivery of meat by wagon averages from two cents to five cents per delivery today. The butcher permits the consumer to pay it. The housewife of the days gone by knew how to prepare succulent stews, inviting boiled meat, delicate steaks from other cuts beside the loin. The cook-book of the days gone by, with its diagram of the various cuts of a beef, bears evidence of this. The diagram is missing from the "Dainty Dishes" *de luxe* of the housewife of to-day.

Good judges of a beef flavor declare that the rounds, the sirloin butts, shoulder steaks, clods, skirts, and flank steaks, when properly prepared for the table, possess a flavor not excelled by the more favored cuts of beef. At the Saddle and Sirloin Club, in the Union Stock Yards, Chicago, the favorite dishes of several packing house magnates are said by the chef to be sirloin butts and flank steaks.

The invention of the fireless cooker is a boon to the housewife of small income. It permits the cooking of the cheaper cuts of meat by a method that preserves their original juices and savor. Meats should be simmered, not boiled. An increased use of the fireless cooker and a proper understanding of the values in the cheaper cuts of beef may save them from consignment to the pickling vats for offer later as corned beef.

The outlook for the future depends upon the facts presented in this summing up. Authorities from the range, the feed lot, the commission house, the packing plant, and the retail market are prone to agree that nothing short of a revision in the monetary system can keep beef from going higher when measured by dollars and cents.

There is a beef boycott in many communities. The boycott comes at the Lenten season. The packers have been asked what effect this foreswearing of animal food will have upon the market. They reply that it may mean a slight temporary depression, hardly measurable in dollars and cents. This they say will be equalized by the increase in the values of other food. There was a beef boycott in 1901, whereupon federal action against the packers led to the Grosscup injunction. There was another in 1905, when the packers won out through the plea which former Attorney-General Moody immortalized by the term "immunity bath." Both were popular for a time. Neither was widespread nor effective in the long run.

ELECTRICITY AS A SOURCE OF HEAT

BY DONALD CAMERON SHAFER

FEW housewives know that even with the very best cook stoves more than 90 per cent. of the heat energy of the coal either escapes up the chimney or makes the kitchen insufferably hot; only from 4 to 7 per cent. of the heat is actually used in cooking. When Edison's dream of electricity direct from coal is realized, if ever, then will this extravagant waste of heat energy cease.

Electricity, except for its present cost, is an ideal source of heat, as there is absolutely no loss in the change from electricity to heat. But to change the coal energy to electricity is a laborious process, as 50 per cent. of the coal energy is wasted in changing it to steam, while nearly 90 per cent. of the steam energy is lost in securing mechanical energy, of which 10 per cent. is lost in changing to electricity,—to say nothing about the enormous cost of furnaces, boilers, steam turbines, electric generators, and other machinery used in the process.

It seems practically certain that new and better ways of obtaining the heat so necessary for our lives and comfort will be found in the years yet to come, but certain it is that unless some such discovery is made before many years the water-powers will have to be harnessed to secure electrical energy, and this energy transmitted to various points and turned into heat.

Electric heat can be had on the instant, for electricity travels at the rate of 186,000 miles a second, and in any degree desired, from a warmth that is barely perceptible to the touch to the carbon-melting heat of the electric furnace in which tungsten, platinum, diamonds, and firebrick itself melt and run like water. Electric heat can be carried anywhere about a building and applied just where wanted without serious loss through radiation. Consequently the electric kitchen and the "wooden range" can be operated all day long to cook and bake without raising the temperature of the kitchen to any considerable degree.

HOW ELECTRICITY PRODUCES HEAT

Whenever electricity is flowing through a wire the temperature of that wire is more or less raised above the surrounding atmosphere. The amount of heat developed depends upon the nature of the conducting wire and its size. It is a fact that every path through which electricity flows offers some obstruction to its flow. This quality is known as resistivity, and the resistance of a definite length of wire of a given diameter of any material can readily be measured. If in a circuit of low-resistance copper wire a small piece of fine platinum wire, having a very high resistance, is introduced, a current which will barely warm the copper wire will heat the platinum wire white hot. This is because the electricity, so to speak, has to work hard to get past the platinum obstacle in its path, and this work produces heat.

Upon this very principle all the electric-heating devices of to-day are constructed. Take, for instance, the electric chafing-dish. Without the above explanation it is difficult for the layman to understand where the heat comes from which cooks the fudge or the Welsh rabbit. One can see no flame, nothing that even looks as though it might be hot, yet the contents of the pan is bubbling away, emitting clouds of steam. When the flexible cord is connected to the electric-light socket and the current turned on the electricity flows down the wires in the cord to the "resistance" concealed in the bottom of the chafing-dish. This "resistance," a leaf of special alloy metal, does not allow the current to pass readily, and the energy expended in overcoming this causes it to get very hot.

HOUSEHOLD USES OF ELECTRIC HEAT

The house electric, wherein all the heating and cooking and most of the housework is done by electricity, is already an assured fact. Over the invisible fires of the wooden stove the meals are being cooked, electric radiators warm the rooms, and electric power drives the vacuum cleaner, washing-machine and wringer, fans, dish-washer, ash-sifter, hair-dryer, and a number of other power-driven machines which have already been introduced to lessen the burdens of the housewife. Large restaurants, hotels, and clubs are beginning to utilize electric heat in their kitchens.

Electric heating and cooking have already

COOKING BY ELECTRICITY

become so common that nearly all of the lighting companies make a special rate for this kind of service, which is considerably less than the regular lighting rate. Under these advantageous conditions electric cooking is but little more costly than cooking by coal or gas, and many times more convenient and sanitary. There is no coal to carry, no dirty soot or ashes, no waste of heat, no overheated kitchen.

In the cities where gas is available the gas range is fast superseding the coal stove because of its greater convenience. A modern gas range costs only about $25, and with gas at from $1 to $1.35 a thousand feet a little over three dollars a month will supply enough to cook food for a family of four. But this does not include hot water for washing and toilet purposes. If these were added it would probably double the monthly cost, as an additional water heater costing about $15 would have to be installed and at least $1.50 would be added to the monthly bills. While gas does away with most of the labor required about a coal stove, it is far indeed from being an ideal source of heat. The open gas flame is dirty and extravagantly wasteful of the precious heat; it gives off obnoxious odors and is more or less dangerous. On the other hand, the gas stove is so much easier to control and manage than a coal stove that it appeals to the women who have to do the cooking in the house. So, too, does the electric range.

Cooking by electricity is already a recognized practice and the heating engineer now has a recognized profession. A great many families have already taken out their cumbersome coal stoves and odorous gas stoves and installed electric ranges in their kitchens. The complete electric range for a family of four costs about $75. This seems high in comparison with the cost of a coal or gas range, but it must be remembered that with the electric range comes a complete set of aluminum and copper cooking utensils, while with coal or gas you have to purchase these things extra. In most cases these ranges, once purchased, are connected free of charge by the electric lighting company, which is usually very anxious to have people do their cooking by electricity. With these companies the "day load," as the current consumption is spoken of, is very light, and it is not until after dark when the lamps are lighted that the demand for electricity really begins. Therefore, in most cases they are willing to make a low rate of 5 cents a kilowatt, or even less, for electricity used for heating and cooking purposes during the day.

COST OF ELECTRIC COOKING

A kitchen range suitable for four consists of a hardwood table, finished in mission style, completely wired and ready for connecting with the city lines. The utensils consist of a

MAKING TOAST AT THE BREAKFAST TABLE

2-quart cereal cooker, a 2-quart teakettle, a 3-pint coffee percolator, a 7-inch frying pan, broiler, grid, oven, toaster, and a small water heater. Where the lighting plant does not connect the kitchen outfit free of cost it can be readily done by any electrician at a nominal figure. A separate meter registers the amount of electricity used for cooking purposes. Such an outfit can be economically operated at a cost averaging close to $1.25 a month per person, or $5 a month for four persons. The electric range does not provide for hot water, but the continuous-flow water heater is used in connection with it. With this type of water heater, which is attached to the faucet, the opening of the tap turns on the electricity and the water is heated as fast as it is drawn, without a particle of wasted energy. Thirty gallons can be heated in this way for 15 cents.

THE ELECTRIC KITCHEN,—COOKING RANGE AND UTENSILS

In one family where gas was obtainable for $1 a thousand feet the average cost per month for cooking by gas was $3.12. For a time all the cooking was done on gasoline stoves; at a cost of 15 cents per gallon for fuel the average cost per month was $3.00. A few years before, when gas was impossible, the cooking for this family was done over coal fires at a cost of $7.50 a month. Now the new electric kitchen is used exclusively at an average cost of $6.85, consuming 137 kilowatts a month at a special rate of 5 cents.

Another family of two kept an accurate account and found their bills close to $3.15 a month for electric cooking. When a sister came to live with them the average increased to $4.35 a month. The average cost per person per meal was only $.0143.

In small families the coal stove is especially expensive and burdensome, as it costs just as much to run such a stove for two as it does for six. In large families the average cost diminishes perceptibly. With electricity the rule is exactly opposite; the smaller the family the more economical the cost for cooking becomes.

A man who recently installed a complete electric kitchen in his new home gives the following operating costs checked from his cooking devices in actual use under a 10-cent rate:

Electric flatirons, 3 lbs., cents per hour	2½
Electric flatirons, 6 lbs., cents per hour	5
Pint water heaters, cents per hour	3
Quart water heaters, cents per hour	5
Two-quart water heaters, cents per hour	10
Six-quart water heaters, cents per hour	13
Combination 4-quart cooker, cents per hour	10
Teakettle, 4-quart, cents per hour	10
Coffee percolators, cents per hour	3 and 5
Chafing-dish, cents per hour	5
Ten-inch stove, cents per hour	12
Frying pans, cents per hour	5 to 13
Broiler, cents per hour	9
Oven, cents per hour	15
Corn popper, cents per hour	3
Cigar lighter, cent per month	1
Shaving mug, cents per month	5
Heating pad, cent per month	½
Luminous radiator, cents per hour	7½ to 15

The fireless cooker is also a great saver of heat energy in the kitchen, and the use of this modern device will save many dollars where the cooking is done by electricity or gas. Coal fires cannot be allowed to go entirely out, because it is so much trouble to get them started again, so the food might just as well boil on the stove as elsewhere. But on the electric range the boiling foods can be taken away, the heat instantly turned off, and the foods placed in the fireless cooker, where they will simmer away until they are done. The fireless cooker costs but little or can be readily improvised at home, it being such a simple device. It is merely a box

AN ELECTRIC FURNACE

wherein the kettle or utensil can be placed and covered, effectually insulating the heat from radiation. A wooden box lined with asbestos and packed with hay, excelsior, or felt will answer the purpose very well.

Throughout the country where electric-light service is available the electric cooking and heating devices are also being used extensively to supplement the other sources of heat. Many of the smaller devices are made with flexible cord connections, so that they can be readily attached to the electric-light fixture in place of a lamp. Perhaps the best known and most useful of all such appliances is the electric flatiron, which is now common enough in the household. This iron, always at a constant temperature, saves the steps to and from the stove, wastes no heat, and does not raise the temperature of the apartments on a warm day,—saving the seconds in the home as well as the heat energy. The chafing-dish, the coffee percolator, the corn popper, the toaster, the small grid, the shaving mug, the milk warmer, and the small water heater can be used economically in this way.

ELECTRIC HEAT IN THE INDUSTRIAL WORLD

Electric heat is already superseding all other kinds of heat in the industrial world where steam heat and direct combustion methods were used to heat special tools and machinery. The adoption of electricity presents the same advantages over the older methods that the electric drive does over the older methods of transmitting power. Safety, cleanliness, flexibility, and convenience are as apparent in these as in other electrical applications. Sanitary conditions are improved and labor is made more available and contented. Machines may be placed where most convenient without regard to the source of heat. Losses due to the transmission of heat are eliminated. Increased production, improved product, and decreased manufacturing cost are also included in the testimony given upon the results obtained by the introduction of electrically heated equipments.

The most important examples of the use of electric heat for industrial purposes are to be found in the metal industries. Pig-iron is being smelted from the ores by electricity; steel is being refined; the manufacture of carbide of calcium, aluminum, phosphorous, carbon bisulphide, sodium, and potassium is being successfully and extensively carried on by the use of electric furnaces.

In the leather trades, clothing and textile manufacturies, wood-working, paper industries, and hundreds of other factories, electric heat is being used to-day. Even the silk mills and tea dryers of far-away India recently sent to the United States for special electrical heating devices.

What the future will bring forth in the heating world is hard to predict, but many wonderful inventions are promised. Who will be the first to store the heat of the sun? Who will be the first to extract electricity direct from coal and save the enormous waste now going on? Who will be the first to discover a new and better source of heat?

Perhaps we shall go right on burning up the precious coal supply until it becomes too scarce to be used for cooking purposes, and by that time, let us hope, the rivers and streams will be all harnessed to electric machinery to supply us with an abundance of electrical energy which can be readily changed into heat.

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HARBOR OF BARCELONA, SPAIN, SHOWING THE MONTJUICH FORT IN THE BACKGROUND

SPAIN'S ECONOMIC REVIVAL

BY FRANK D. HILL

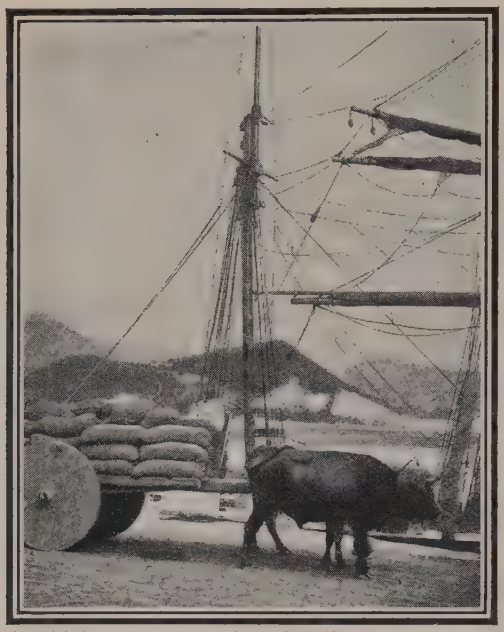
(American Consul-General at Barcelona)

SPAIN is redividus; the sleeper has awakened. The roar of our shotted guns at Manila and Santiago was not more epochal in proclaiming the opening of a new and the end of an old era for the United States than for Spain; a new Spain, with its pronounced manifestations at Barcelona and Bilbao, dates from 1898. Spain's colonial rule had throughout the century been marked by feebleness; like the Netherlands in Europe and New England in the United States, the nation had lost her expansive force,—but in losing her colonies found herself. The bonds that united her to her romantic past and the heroic epoch in her history,—to the reigns of Ferdinand and Isabella, Charles V., and Philip II.,—were cut in twain, and she now faces for the first time the somewhat brutalized positivism,—the hard, unyielding facts, —of modern life in which the practical spirit holds full and undisputed sway.

A sober historian calculates that in the last thirty years of Spanish rule 150,000 lives and $800,000,000 were lost in the Cuban wars alone. This drain and a like one in the Philippines has been stopped. Besides, large numbers of Spaniards elected to return to the old home, once the Spanish flag was lowered in the colonies. Indeed, the newer districts of Barcelona have been built up in great part by these returned "Americans," as they are called here.

SOUND NATIONAL FINANCES

The interest payments on the debt, requiring about $67,000,000 annually on a principal of $1,500,000,000, is promptly met, the budget balances without deficits; and most of the public securities have been funded at 4 per cent. The external 4s, which were quoted on December 31, 1898, at 59.50, were 97.15 on December 31, 1908, and while it took over 32 pesetas to buy a pound sterling of foreign exchange on December 31, 1898,



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HAULING WHEAT BY MEANS OF OXEN, BARCELONA

it took only about 28 on the same date ten years later. The "Norte" railway,—the chief artery of the country's transportation system,—was quoted as short a time as three years ago at 50 and now stands at over 80, and the stocks of the "Alicante," another trunk line, which were 82 at the same period, now rule at 98 and above. The credit of the country is shown by the fact that the 4 per cent. amortizable loan opened in Madrid on July 9, 1908, for about $28,000,000 was subscribed fifty-five times over.

THE COUNTRY'S NATURAL RESOURCES

The natural wealth of Spain in minerals has been known to everybody since the period when Cadiz was founded at the pillars of Hercules 1000 B.C.; but not until very lately have its resources been scientifically developed. Unfortunately to-day, like the country's public securities which are held for the most part in Paris and Brussels, these properties have passed into foreign hands. One by one the weak governments of the past have been compelled to part with the nation's treasures,—the copper mines of Rio Tinto, the lead mines of Tharsis and Linares, and the great quicksilver mines at Almaden, —all of world-wide vogue as producers of metal. Nevertheless these sources of wealth are now being systematically exploited and yield revenues to the state and pay wages to Spanish workmen. The rise and growth of Bilbao, under foreign control and with foreign capital, has been quite as phenomenal as the story of our Leadvilles, Buttes, etc.

Spain produces her own sugar on the beautiful "vega" of Granada and other parts of that most favored region, the olive thrives throughout all the south and east and the production of olive oil is a very large industry, while wines are produced both in the south and north. The luxuriant garden stretching from the French frontier to Gibraltar,—about 700 miles,—shows the almost unmatched natural resources of only one section of sunny Spain. Within that sea-bound strip cork, wheat, rice, the vine, and all manner of fruits of both the tropical and temperate zones are cultivated. The one small city of Castellon in Valencia received in 1906 over 6,000,000 boxes of oranges at about $2 a box, or $12,000,000, while in the mountains flanking this coast region are located the famous mines of Linares, Almaden, and Rio Tinto.

Agriculture is, of course, backward. Farming operations hark back to the childhood of the race,—to Bible days,—and olive oil and wines prepared for the market in a more or less primitive way are shipped to France and Italy, there to be elaborated, put in bottles and casks with foreign labels, and sold to the world as native products, the return to the Spanish growers being com-

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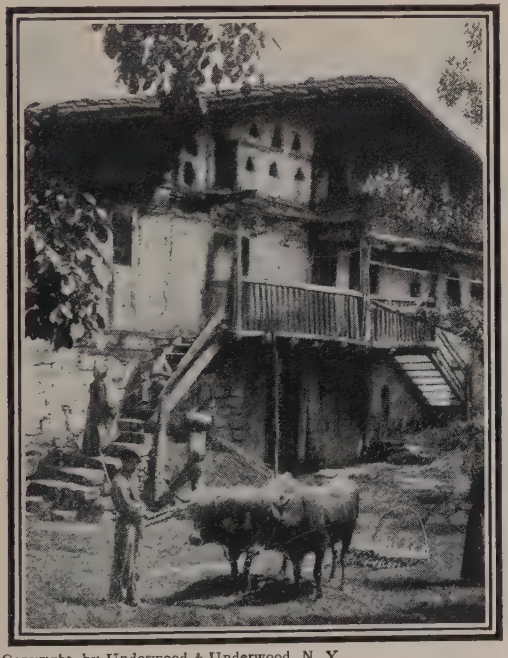
HARVESTING WHEAT IN THE BASQUE PROVINCE OF GUIPUZCOA, NORTHERN SPAIN

paratively small. The farmer still plows with a crooked stick and the ancient threshing floor is the usual fanning-mill. Still, the sale of American harvesting machinery is making headway, though slowly. Deering, Plano, and other harvesters and Deere plows are used on the King's farm at La Granja and were exhibited by him at the Saragossa Exposition in 1908.

CATALONIA, THE MOST MODERN PROVINCE

Progressive Spain consists of the region skirting the Pyrenees from Barcelona to San Sebastian,—the summer home of the King, and one of the leading summer resorts of Europe,—and the region to the west facing the Bay of Biscay, including the cities of Bilbao and Santander,—in other words, Catalonia, with its capital at Barcelona, Aragon, Navarre, and the Basque provinces.

Catalonia is the most modern province in Spain. In all her history she has been turbulent and has manifested centrifugal tendencies. Her language is Catalan,—a Provençal speech,—and not Spanish or Castilian, and her characteristics of industry, frugality, and saving have caused her people to be called the Dutch of Spain.



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A TYPICAL FARM-HOUSE OF THE BETTER CLASS

The modern Catalan has in his veins the blood of the old Iberian race, reinforced by admixture of the Greek, Roman, Goth, Arab, and Gaul. In his business instincts and aptitudes he contrasts sharply with the inactive Castilian, who, with the inhabitants of Leon and Extremadura, which gave to the world Cortez and Pizarro, are the Spaniards, in the main, of history, presenting the type regarded as characteristic abroad; and with the gay and lightminded Andalusians, who, like the country people of the Castiles, are simple agriculturists, living the life and employing the methods that the world in its onward march has left behind.

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THE RAMBLA

(The principal business thoroughfare of Barcelona)

CENTERS OF TRADE AND INDUSTRY

From the ninth century on, when Catalonia was joined to Aragon, Barcelona, Genoa, and Venice were the three pre-eminent commercial cities of the Mediterranean, while the former's Consulado del Mar, or code of maritime law, was as authoritative a statement of principles and practice in the Middle Ages as was that of Rhodes in antiquity. Nor has Barcelona lost its place of primacy. To-day one-quarter of the foreign trade of Spain enters its custom houses. Barcelona has 750,000 inhabitants, and the surrounding district embraces many other centers of from 5000 to 25,000 population, as Badalona, Igualada, Manresa, and Sabadell.

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DECORATING TABLEWARE IN A MODERN SPANISH FACTORY

In short, there are from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000 people spread over this Barcelona plain, every town and village filled with manufactories, and all constituting together a hive of industry,—the Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, and Birmingham of Spain all in one.

BARCELONA, THE FINANCIAL, COMMERCIAL, AND INDUSTRIAL FOCUS

The notable expansion in the growth of the municipality of Barcelona dates from the exposition held here in 1888. During these twenty years no city in southern Europe has so increased in extent, importance, and population. Though the least Spanish of all the towns of Spain, it is yet the focus of the financial, industrial, and commercial activities of the peninsula. It now has two and a half times the population of Genoa, 200,000 more than Marseilles, and 50,000 more than Naples, which alone approaches it in size, exceeding the population of Madrid probably by 150,000 souls.

The port has an area of 305 acres, and is larger than the three harbors of Marseilles together; the depth of water is from 25 to 30 feet, which, while probably deep enough for its present traffic, is, of course, not up to the requirements of contemporary deep-water vessels entering the great ports of the world, which are requiring channels up to 40 and 50 feet in depth. Thirteen steamship companies have their principal offices here. Of the Spanish companies the Spanish Transatlantic is the great enterprise, having twenty-five steamers of 85,000 tons, subsidized by the government, plying between Barcelona and the Philippines, the Antilles, Mexico, and the United States. About 4000 ships, with a tonnage of about 2,000,000, enter annually, half of which are under the English flag.

Foreign influence is very strong at Barcelona. Next to the Bank of Spain the Credit Lyonnais is the principal bank here, maintaining two branches in the city. Frenchmen also own and manage the leading electric-light company and the company which furnishes the city with coal, oil, and benzine. Perhaps there are 12,000 French here and 1500 Germans. The Deutsche Bank of Berlin has a branch here (Banco Aleman Transatlantico), and there are also private bankers. The electric-light company that lights the city is German, and one of the main tramway companies is also German. There is a German church and German school, and here, as everywhere, German influence is increasing. The British colony numbers 400 or 500. One of the tramway lines was originally English, but is now Belgian. The Direct Spanish Telegraph Company, with cables to England and France, is an English enterprise, and that as well as the Commercial Cable Company is repre-

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PASCO DE COLON,—COLUMBUS PROMENADE
(Barcelona's most popular avenue, looking northeast from the Columbus monument)

sented here by an Englishman. All the leading cotton mills in Catalonia are equipped with English machinery. J. & P. Coats have an establishment here, associated with a Catalan firm, and turn out thread on a very large scale. The Italian colony numbers several thousand, and an Italian has charge of the port improvements.

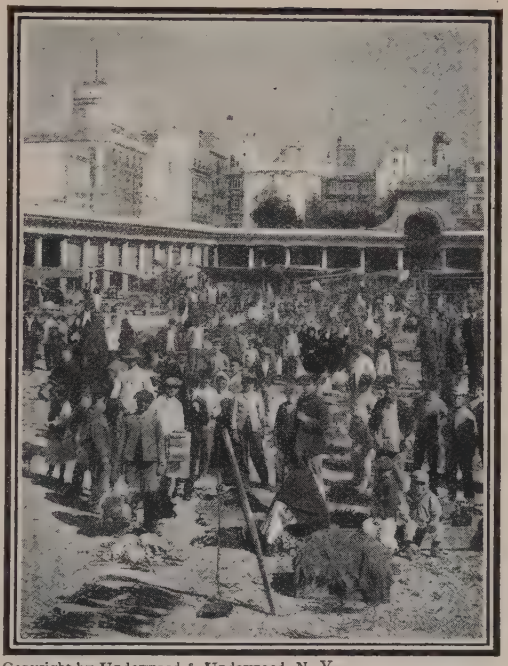
The vigorous life of the city and its spirit of enterprise is shown in the work of urban reform now going on under the joint control of the City Council and the Spanish colonial bank, involving an outlay of about 290,000,000 pesetas, or about $46,500,000. This improvement will practically Hausmannize the shell of the "old city" and bring it up to the level of the new part or "ensanche," which has come into being within the last twenty years.

The two chief cities of Spain, then, between which a keen, almost fierce, rivalry exists, are Madrid and Barcelona. Madrid, which has changed greatly of late years and which is undergoing transformation daily, is a pleasing, though not by any means a stately or imposing capital, and is the center of the political, artistic, scholarly, and polite life of the nation. Barcelona is the New York, or, rather, Chicago, of Spain. Madrid, like Seville, will always be a Mecca to the art-lover and delver into the past.

BILBAO AND THE BASQUE PROVINCES

Quite as dissimilar to the Spaniard as the Catalan is also the Basque, inhabiting the provinces of Guipuzcoa, Aliva, Vizcaya, and Santander. They number about 500,000 and are of another race and language from the remainder of Spain, and have also overflowed into neighboring Navarre and France. They are a sturdy, manly lot of mountaineers and fishermen of individualistic traditions and consistent upholders, as are the Catalans, of a decentralized policy in the state. This section was in the middle of the last century the home of Carlism and the theater of the Carlist wars, Bilbao, as regards sieges, having been almost a modern Troy. The final battle of the Peninsular War, overthrowing French power in Spain, was fought at Victoria, not far from San Sebastian. The peasantry of these provinces has undoubtedly reached a higher level than in any other part of Spain, and their roads are the best the writer has seen anywhere in the country.

Bilbao has grown during the last thirty years, during which the rich iron deposits have been systematically worked, to a city



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THE PLAZA, CADIZ

of about 100,000 inhabitants. As an example of modern progress it ranks easily after Madrid and Barcelona, although Seville is larger and has a vastly greater charm.

Seville has lately become a port and is the home of several flourishing coastwise shipping companies. It is a city of wealth, as well as of monuments. Like Granada and Cordova it attracts visitors, to whom it affords some of the most delightful pictures of Spanish life. Malaga is somewhat behind most cities on the Mediterranean coast of Spain, of which Almeria and Alicante, next to Valencia, appear to be taking on a new life most rapidly.

INDUSTRIES OF CATALONIA

Cotton manufacture is the leading branch of industry in Catalonia, 125,000 operatives being employed and a turnout made annually of between $70,000,000 and $80,000,000 of finished product. There is also a considerable woolen industry at Barcelona. This industry employs 200,000 spindles, or 4000 looms. The paper and linen industries are also of importance.

The most characteristic industry of this region is, however, that of cork, the finest cork in the world being produced in and exported from the little town of San Feliu de Guixols. About $10,000,000 worth of

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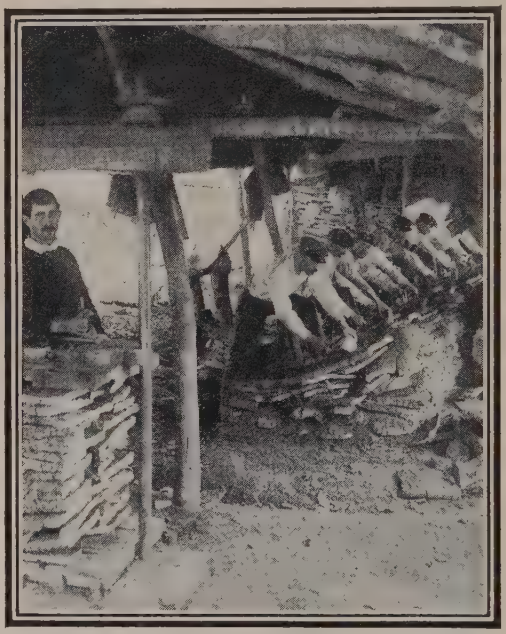
SPOOLING COTTON IN A MILL AT MALAGA

cork is exported from Spain, 10 per cent. of which is manufactured, the remainder being cork wood, shavings, etc. This industry is highly specialized, each factory turning out special varieties, and all kinds of champagne corks, corks for fine wines, beer, mineral water, drugs and medicines, round covers and tops for jars, including the disks provided with metal caps,—employed in crown "corking,"—in all, about 150 varieties. From 30,000 to 40,000 people are employed in this industry.

There is a considerable silk industry also, with an output of about $7,000,000 annually.

The manufacture of chemical products is also worthy of note, as well as of leather and leather goods.

Spain's 8000 flour mills and 10,000 water and wind mills producing flour supply the local markets. Rarely is flour imported into the kingdom. About 85,000 people are engaged in this industry.



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SCRAPING AND PRESSING THE BOILED CORK BARK

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THE CORK INDUSTRY IN SPAIN
(Working in the stock-yard, where piles of bark await curing and baling)

There are only two important automobile factories in Spain, that of the Hispano-Suizo Company, of Barcelona, and a branch of the French Darracq Company, established at Victoria, in the north, not far from San Sebastian.

Swords are still made at Toledo, and both there and at Eibar the inlaying of gold in steel,—perhaps the most characteristic product of present-day Spain,—is a flourishing craft. Bilbao and the north generally, with Barcelona, is the seat of the metallurgical works of the country. The *Infanta Maria Teresa, Oquendo,* and *Vizcaya,* sunk at Santiago, were built at Bilbao.

An evidence of the progress of the country is afforded by the fact that contracts were signed by the government with an English syndicate, including Maxim Vickers & Co. and the Thorneycrafts and a Spanish syndicate, for the rebuilding of the Spanish fleet, this contract calling for an expenditure of about $30,000,000.

SPAIN'S FOREIGN TRADE

Spain is a frankly protectionist nation, and the tariff of 1906, now in force, was passed through the Cortes by a combine between Barcelona and Bilbao, the two industrial centers of the country.

Spanish figures show imports from the United States to amount to about $23,000,000 (1907), of which over $21,000,000, or 90 per cent., consisted of raw materials or articles slightly changed in the processes of manufacture. The item of raw cotton amounted to $17,000,000: of this, petroleum and tobacco, each $1,000,000; paraffin, $350,000; lubricating oils, $330,000, etc. This, as the writer has said elsewhere, constitutes "soil butchery" at home and in no sense spells international trade abroad. No American can be proud of such an "invasion" of foreign markets as this. As a trader with Spain we are not very far from being on an equality with Russia, Cuba, and Brazil. Great Britain, the premier nation in Spanish trade both ways, France, Germany, and Belgium supply Spain with the manufactured goods she buys abroad.

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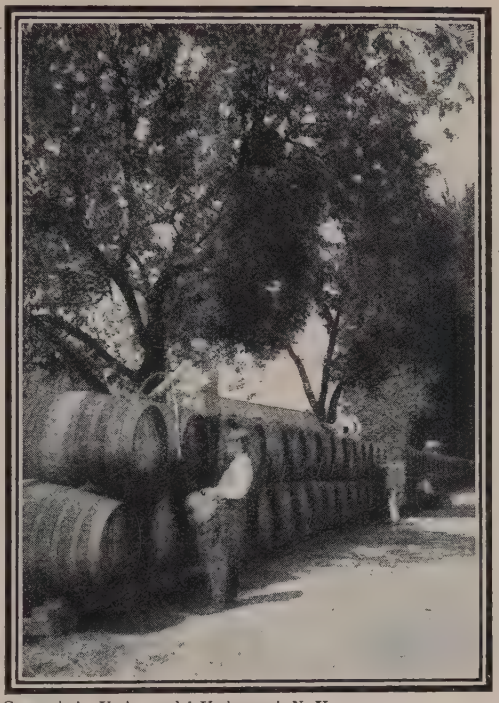
MID-SEASON WORK IN A COUNTRY VINEYARD



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MILES OF SHERRY WINE CASKS AT JEREZ

Our figures show that exports from Spain to the United States and their insular possessions amounted in 1907 to about $13,000,000, of which from $1,000,000 to $2,000,000 go to the Philippines. The largest item of export consists of $4,000,000 or $5,000,000 of iron ores from the district about Huelva. The prospect for Spain's holding her trade with her old colonies does not seem to be regarded here as bright.

SPAIN'S FORMER ISOLATION

A writer who I think more nearly than most foreigners has divined Spain (Havelock Ellis, "The Soul of Spain,") well says that Spain represents, above all, the supreme manifestation of a certain primitive and eternal attitude of the human spirit, an attitude of heroic energy, of spiritual exaltation directly not chiefly toward comfort or toward gain but toward the more fundamental facts of human existence. This is so. The Spanish mind is introspective, mystical, Quixotish, and has almost wholly lived in the past. Cut off from the rest of Europe by the Pyrenees, —witness the popular saying "Africa begins at the Pyrenees,"—the overwhelming push

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THE BANK OF SPAIN, MADRID

of things in other modern states since the Napoleonic era had scarcely affected her people, albeit some slight traces of French influence filtered through the natural barriers. For the most part, however, the nation in the nineteenth century went on its way wrapping itself and hiding its face in its Spanish cloak, inactive, unambitious, self-contented, and self-centered, living its poetical but not intellectual life by itself and for itself. Of its superiority it had no doubt.

THE NEW NATIONAL SPIRIT

The chief lesson, then, of the occurrences of 1898 has been, I think, to open the eyes of the Spanish people,—that is, that part of the nation that reads and thinks,—to the real place Spain occupies among the nations in this positivistic age of steam, electricity, and unbridled competition. In the twinkling of an eye she has come to realize that a society founded on status and not on contract is an anachronism, and that nations relying on their past, however glorious merely as an inspiration, no less than individuals must now give an account of themselves and meet all comers in the arena on equal terms. Hence one finds to-day the modern spirit in the ascendant. Proud, rigid, conservative Spain, unchanging and unchangeable, is changing and coming into step with the modern movement everywhere.

THE MODERNIZING OF THE COUNTRY

Spain is very, very backward. I should not say decadent, but the Spain of Merimée's and Bizet's "Carmen," of Mozart's "Don Juan," of Verdi's "Trovatore,"—nay, even of Washington Irving and Théophile Gautier, of Ford and George Barrow, has vanished. The country is fairly well supplied with railways, over which trains are run at an average speed of from 12 to 15 miles an hour, with a few expresses at 25. New lines are piercing the Pyrenees, and although the highways in general do not invite the automobilist, yet the days of the stage-coach and the tinkling bells of the mule teams and picturesque brigandage and traveling, thieving gypsies, with their peculiar dialect, are things of the past.

The Spanish inn has gone, too, with the conditions that sustained it, and most of the leading centers have moderately comfortable hotels. Generally speaking, however, the hotels even at Madrid and Barcelona are far from being up to date. This will be remedied, doubtless, before very long, since the tide of travel seems to be turning somewhat toward the Peninsula. As a matter of fact, nevertheless, though there are Cooks' offices in several cities, Spain is still an unfrequented by-way by no means thronged with tourists. It is yet one of the most unspoiled

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THE IMPOSING ROYAL PALACE AND PARK, MADRID

of European countries. On the other hand, the luxuries provided almost everywhere nowadays for the convenience of the globe-trotter are absent here, and in no modern country must the traveler depend so much upon himself. Barcelona is making propaganda with a view of attracting foreign visitors, but it appears with no great success.

In the matter of urban development the use of electricity, transportation facilities, the chief cities of Spain are quite on a level with any modern cities of their size, and the cinematograph is as much of a craze here as in the United States. Perhaps there are 3000 automobiles owned in Spain.

The illiteracy of the country is appalling, about 70 per cent. of the population being analphabetic. The small size and restricted character of bookstores at Madrid and Barcelona show only too plainly that there is no large reading public to cater to. Newspapers, too, while sufficiently numerous, are poorly printed on cheap paper, as are most bound publications also, and telegraphic and news services are very meager. Something, though not much, is being done to promote public education.

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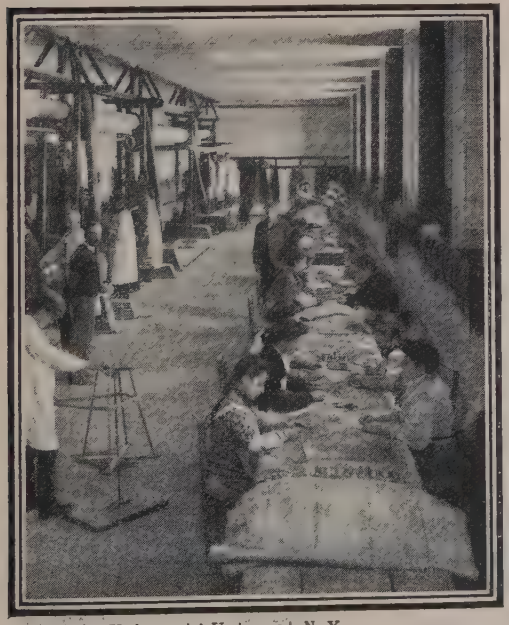
THE "RASTRO"

(One of the most unique markets in the old quarter of Madrid)

SPAIN'S PLACE IN ART AND LETTERS

As respects art and literature cotemporary Spain compares not so unfavorably with her neighbors. Americans have recently come to know something of contemporary Spanish art from the exhibits of the canvases of Sorollo and Zuloaga in New York and other cities. Pradella and Fortuny in painting and Benlliure in sculpture are artists who have achieved European recognition. Rich in its old masters the Prado at Madrid with its Valesquez, Murillo, Ribera, and Goya rooms and its treasures of all schools ranks with the galleries at Rome, Florence, and Dresden. To know thoroughly Murillo, who is as well represented as the far greater Valesquez, the art lover must also visit Seville.



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THE ROYAL TAPESTRY FACTORY, MADRID

(Weaving,—at the left,—on looms, and repairing ancient tapestry.—at the right)

The most marked development of Spanish literature during the latter half of the nineteenth century has been in the Spanish novel. The works of Perez Galdòs, Valera, Alarcon, Fernan Caballero, Valdès, and Blasco Ibañez belong to contemporary European literature, and many of the works of these authors, particularly of Perez Galdòs and Blasco Ibañez, have been translated into languages of even such limited use as Dutch, Swedish, and Danish.

Juan Valera, who spent his life in the diplomatic service of his country and was once

Minister to the United States, may be ranked as the stylist of this brilliant group of literary men. A gentle philosophy tinged with skepticism pervades his pages, and Valera was a subtle moralist. "Pepita Jimènez" and "Doña Luz" are the best known of his romances. The former, which is suffused with the odor of the Spanish mysticism of the seventeenth century, is regarded as a fine example of pure Spanish prose, although this, as his other novels, is entirely devoid of plot, standing at exactly the antipodal pole to Dumas' popular laboriously wrought creations, such as the "Count of Monte Cristo."

Alarcon, whom nature evidently meant, as in the case of Gerard Dou in a sister art, to work on a small scale, left one incomparable example of the modern Spanish picturesque romance in "El Sombrero de Tres Picos."

Blasco Ibañez is the latest Spanish novelist to obtain a public. He shows plainly the influence of modern scientific thought; many of his novels recall Balzac's and Zola's method only too much. Nevertheless, Ibañez can tell a story, writes powerful polemics in story guise, and presents the best picture of Spain as it now is of any current literary pen. His novels as a whole aim to do for Spain in realistic fashion what Balzac did for human nature generally or what Zola did to reveal the present-day life of France in realistic fashion. "La Bodega" is a study of Jerez and its wine industry, "La Catedral" of Toledo and the Church, "El Intruso" of Bilbao and the development of its iron mines by foreign capital, "La Maja Desnuda" the artistic life of Madrid, "Arroz y Tartana" bourgeois life at Valencia, "Sangre y Arena,"—tauromachy,—bull-fighting, "Los Muertos Mandan" a study of Jewish survival in the Island of Mallorca (Palma).

Perez Galdòs is, all things considered, nevertheless the chief name in contemporary Spanish literature. "Doña Perfecta," "Gloria," and "La Familia de Leon Roch,"—politico-religious novels,—justly entitle their writer to be ranked as one of the great writers of romance of the time. The "Episodios Nacionales," resembling the "Romans Nationaux" of Erckmann-Chatrian, of which three or four dozen are already published, are a remarkable attempt to write Spanish history in the nineteenth century in the form of the historical novel.

In criticism Melendez y Pelayo, who lectured at Johns Hopkins last year, is not exceded in erudition or discrimination by any European contemporary.

POWER OF THE CHURCH

The Church is very powerful in this Catholic country. It is said to receive through the state budget (about $8,000,000) gifts, etc., about $60,000,000 a year. There are about 50,000 monks and nuns in the country, 5000 of whom are engaged in teaching. Many members of the expelled religious orders have come here from France, and the Carthusians now manufacture their Chartreuse at Tarragona, about two hours from Barcelona, instead of Grenoble, as formerly.

SPANISH FRIENDLINESS TOWARD AMERICA

The feeling of Spaniards, it is quite safe to say, is friendly and amiable toward the American people. Their ill-fortune in 1898 is attributed by them to themselves quite as much as to us. While recognizing the hopeless nature of the struggle, Spaniards feel that the results can be accounted for on the ground of their own unpreparedness without seeking other causes. Our official delegates at the Saragossa Exposition held on the anniversary of the deed of the Maid of Saragossa and the heroic defense of the city against the French in 1808, were treated with the greatest consideration, as are all our people who visit Spain on official errands or on business of their own.

POPULATION CHANGES AND RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

BY WILLIAM S. ROSSITER

AFTER an interval of sixteen years the federal Government has again compiled statistics of religious bodies. Returns of this character merely reflect the growth of or change in the popular support of religious denominations; thus, while such information is of general interest to a great number of people, it is commonly regarded as possessing no real economic value to student or to legislator. At this period, however, there is another standpoint from which the statistics of religious bodies recently published by the Census Bureau assume increased interest, and some economic significance.

The most far-sighted among us cannot predict the outcome of the remarkable change which the vast stream of immigration, so long continued, is fast effecting in the republic. History records no such population movement in previous ages, nor is there any precedent for the assimilation of races now apparently in progress. Assimilation, however, is in reality the mightiest problem before the American people, and light upon it,—even the feeblest rays,—would be welcome. In the changes in the attitude of the American people toward religious beliefs which have occurred since the previous census inquiry, is to be found one of the first signs of the new composite of race, now in process of creation in the United States.

RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS AND NUMBER OF COMMUNICANTS

The first federal inquiry concerning the number and value of churches was made in 1850. Thereafter, statistics relating to this subject were collected decennially to and including 1890, but the returns for 1880, though very complete, were never tabulated. The Twelfth Census Act (1900) directed a similar inquiry, but, owing to the increasing burden of taking and compiling the decennial census of population, agriculture, and manufactures, the inquiry concerning religious bodies was placed by Congress in the class known as secondary, and made as of the year 1906. The results have been published recently in bulletin or preliminary form.

Statistics of this character are necessarily defective. Returns of population and the various activities of the people are obtained direct by the federal Government upon uniform schedules, thus permitting definite and in general reasonably accurate comparisons; in contrast to this method the returns for religious bodies are furnished by the different church organizations themselves, and thus reflect the marked variations which occur in the methods of procedure of the different denominations. To some degree these can be reconciled, but at best such statistics are chiefly of value to draw broad conclusions.

The result of the census inquiry of 1906 may be thus summarized and compared, as far as practicable, with similar returns for 1890:

Inquiry.	1906.	1890.
Number of bodies or denominations	186	145
Organizations	212,230	165,151
Number of church edifices	192,795	142,487
Seating capacity	58,536,830	43,560,063
Value of church property	$1,257,575,867	$679,426,489
Amount of indebtedness	$108,050,946	.....
Number of ministers	164,830	111,036
Communicants	32,936,445	20,597,954
Sunday schools:		
Number	192,722	.....
Teachers	1,746,074	.....
Scholars	15,337,811	.....

The only statistics available from censuses prior to 1890 relate to number of organizations, seating capacity of churches, and the value of church property.

While it is not advisable to accept these returns as exact statistics, they are at least useful as close approximations. Thus accepted, in fifty-six years church organizations increased in number fivefold, seating capacity increased fourfold, and value of church property increased more than fourteenfold. The increase in the wealth of religious organizations thus appears to have been the most striking change and probably out-

stripped increase in the aggregate wealth of the nation.

Although no returns of membership were secured and tabulated prior to 1890, a method of approximating this interesting information is available. The Compendium of the Seventh Census, published in 1853, quotes a table published in the "Baptist Annual" for 1850, presenting church membership by denominations. The total Protestant church membership in that year was stated to be 3,345,932, while the Roman Catholic membership, including infants and all baptized persons, was 1,173,700. When made comparable with the Protestant membership, the number of Roman Catholic communicants was approximately 939,000.

Upon the basis of these figures the average membership of Protestant churches in 1850 was 90.3; in 1890 the known average was 91.5. This resemblance at once suggests a means of computing the membership of Protestant churches in 1860 and 1870. Employing for those years the average shown in 1850, the following results appear:

Year.	Total Protestant membership.	Number per 1000 total population.
1850	3,345,932	149
1860	4,636,092	148
1870	6,126,403	159
1880	9,263,234*	184

* Quoted in the Report of the Eleventh Census as compiled from private sources.

In 1850 there were but 1222 Roman Catholic organizations in the United States; in 1860, 2550, and in 1870, 4127. On the basis of the average membership per organization (768), derived from the "Baptist Annual" for 1850,—the total Roman Catholic membership in 1860 must have approximated 1,958,400; in 1870, 3,169,536. Still accepting these figures as approximations, but now combined, the following results appear for total membership of all Protestant and Roman Catholic bodies:

Year.	Membership.	Annual per cent. increase.	Per 1000 of total population.	Proportion of total membership.	
				Protestant	Roman Catholic.
1850	4,284,932	...	184	78	22
1860	6,594,492	5.3	210	70	30
1870	9,295,939	4.1	241	66	34
1890	20,249,560*	5.8	321	69	31
1906	32,366,882*	3.7	425	62	38

* Actual enumeration.

The number of church members in each 1000 of population in 1906 was thus much more than double that shown in 1850.

COMPARATIVE INCREASE OF PROTESTANTS AND ROMAN CATHOLICS

Prior to the extensive immigration movement to the United States which began toward the close of the decade from 1840 to 1850, it is probable that substantially all members of religious bodies in the United States were Protestants, with the exception of those in Louisiana and parts of Maryland. The original stock in New England and in almost all of the areas included in the British North American Colonies was drawn principally from the staunchest opponents of the Church of Rome. A census of religious bodies in the United States taken early in the nineteenth century undoubtedly would have shown that denominations other than Protestant were practically negligible. There were, indeed, less than 100 Roman Catholic churches in the six New England States as late as 1850. The early immigration movement was English, Scotch, Irish, and German. This movement contributed Protestants and Roman Catholics at least equally, but from 1850 to 1890 the religious beliefs of those who sought homes in the Republic were increasingly Roman Catholic, and from 1890 to 1900 immigrants holding the latter faith greatly preponderated. From 1900 to 1906, the new arrivals were practically all either Roman Catholic or non-Christian.

INFLUENCE OF IMMIGRATION

While Christianity as represented by the Protestant and Roman Catholic faiths continues to retain the great body of persons having religious affiliations (98 per cent. of all in 1890 and 97 per cent. in 1906), it would be reasonable to expect that one of the earliest results to appear from immigration of the character indicated would be the substitution of a population in which adherents of the Roman Catholic faith equaled or exceeded in number those of the Protestant denominations in large areas in which the population previously had been exclusively Protestant. This change has actually occurred to a striking degree in many States.

Utilizing the approximations of total membership of religious organizations 1850 to 1870 previously established, we note these changes in number of organizations, membership, and value of church property in the two great branches of the Christian faith:

Year.	Organizations.				Membership.				Value of church property.			
	Protestant.		Roman Catholic.		Protestant.		Roman Catholic.		Protestant.		Roman Catholic.	
	Number.	Annual p. ct. incr.	Number.	Annual p. ct. incr.	Number.	Annual p. ct. incr.	Number.	Annual p. ct. incr.	Value.	Annual p. ct. incr.	Value.	Annual p. ct. incr.
1850...	36,793	....	1,222	....	3,345,932	....	939,000	....	$77,568,683	....	$9,256,758	....
1860...	51,341	4.0	2,550	10.9	4,636,092	3.0	1,955,400	10.8	142,589,918	8.4	26,774,119	18.9
1870...	67,845	3.2	4,127	6.2	6,126,403	1.0	3,169,536	6.2	287,557,381	10.1	60,985,566	12.8
1880...	....	....	....	....	9,263,234	4.2	3,841,051	4.4	....	....	....	....
1890...	153,058	6.3	10,239	7.4	14,007,852	2.5	6,241,708	4.9	549,709,027	4.5	118,123,346	4.7
1906...	194,501	1.7	12,472*	1.4	20,287,742	2.8	12,079,142	5.8	935,994,578	4.5	292,638,787	9.0

* Limited to churches reporting membership.

The impressive fact which develops from inspection of this table is the evidence of more rapid Roman Catholic growth. It is not in the columns which are confessedly approximations that the most striking increases occur, but in those to be accepted as substantially accurate. In 1850 the Protestants contributed 96.7 per cent. of organizations, 78 per cent. of membership, and 88.9 per cent. of church property. In 1906 the percentages were 92.1, 62, and 74.4 respectively.

The changing proportions of membership in the two branches of Christian faith in each 1000 of population in different geographic divisions were as follows in 1906, as compared with 1890:

Geographical division.	Members of Protestant churches per each 1000 inhabitants.		Members of Roman Catholic churches per each 1000 inhabitants.	
Year.	1890.	1906.	1890.	1906.
Continental United States	223	241	99	143
North Atlantic States..	184	188	162	241
New England.....	158	155	214	313
Southern North Atlantic States.....	193	199	150	218
Southern States.....	311	322	26	48
Middle West States....	201	232	97	138
Far West States.....	81	132	136	178

It will be observed that the increase in the number of adherents of the Roman Catholic faith in each thousand of population during the sixteen years from 1890 to 1906 was much greater in every geographic division than increase in the number of members of Protestant churches. In the North Atlantic States the Roman Catholic communicants in each thousand of population were more numerous than those of Protestant faith; and in New England, where the proportion has become two to one, this result of population change is very striking.

From 1850 to 1906 the membership of Protestant churches recorded a five-fold increase, that of Roman Catholic churches an increase of almost thirteen-fold. It is to be seriously doubted whether members of Protestant churches will ever form a materially larger proportion in each thousand of total population than that shown in 1906, but the inference is apparently justified that the proportion of Romanists will continue to increase.

The North Atlantic States, and especially the New England group, may now be regarded as the stronghold of Catholicism in the United States. In Massachusetts 355 persons in every thousand of total population were reported in 1906 as members of Roman Catholic churches; in Rhode Island, 400; Connecticut, 298; New Hampshire, 277; New York, 278. Some of these proportions were double those shown sixteen years earlier. The Protestant communicants per 1000 of population in the States mentioned numbered but 148 in Massachusetts, 131 in Rhode Island, 195 in Connecticut, 149 in New Hampshire, and 150 in New York, and practically all showed a decline per 1000 of total population from 1890 to 1906. With the continued influx of Roman Catholic immigrants the proportions here shown for adherents of that faith in all probability are steadily increasing.

On the other hand the Southern States, the most striking characteristic of which from a population standpoint is the purity of the native stock, continue to be the stronghold of Protestantism. In 1906 in the twelve Southern States (exclusive of Louisiana and Texas) the proportion of Roman Catholics per 1000 of population was but 21; and in the group composed of Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, the proportion was but 12. In North Carolina the proportion sinks to the negligible number of 2 per thou-

sand. The altered industrial conditions in the South, however, are likely in the future to introduce marked changes in the proportion of adherents of religious faiths.

THE SOURCES OF PROTESTANT AND ROMAN CATHOLIC STRENGTH

There is no clear evidence that either the Protestant or Roman Catholic branch of the Christian faith is drawing materially from the population identified by birth with the other. Hence it is obviously misleading to regard a distinctly Protestant community as a basis of supply for Roman Catholic membership, and the converse is equally true. What, then, was the population base in the United States in 1906 upon which the two great branches of Christianity depended for support?

As already pointed out, in general the original stock is the source of Protestant strength, while subsequent accessions furnish the Roman Catholics with their population base. Although no census statistics are available by which to measure the present number of persons descended from the original stock, the writer has pointed out in a recent census publication* that there is much justification for using the census returns of native born of native parents less 20 per cent. to approximate native stock. To this number should be added, for the purpose of this analysis, persons of English, Scotch, German, Scandinavian, and Dutch birth and parentage. Such a computation is an approximation, but it will serve as a rough measurement of the population from which the two faiths can and do draw their support.

Such a computation is necessary, indeed, at the present time to dispel much popular misunderstanding. In New England there is frequent reference to the weakness or apathy of Protestant churches. It is not strange. In Massachusetts, for example, the observer is confronted by a dense and active population and evidences of great wealth. Should not the Protestant churches be commensurate in number and influence? Analysis, however, reveals the pertinent fact that out of a population slightly exceeding 3,000,000 in 1905, approximately 900,000 only are descendants of the native stock, and probably not over 1,000,000 persons in the commonwealth are available from which to draw membership and support for Protestant churches. In 1850 the population of Massachusetts was 994,000, and was composed almost exclusively of native stock. Hence the population source of supply for Protestantism in the Bay State in 1906 is practically the same as it was more than half a century ago.

It must, however, be understood that in such a complicated analysis there are so many qualifying factors on both sides that the figures shown in the following table should be regarded merely as approximations,—a significant study of denominational strength.

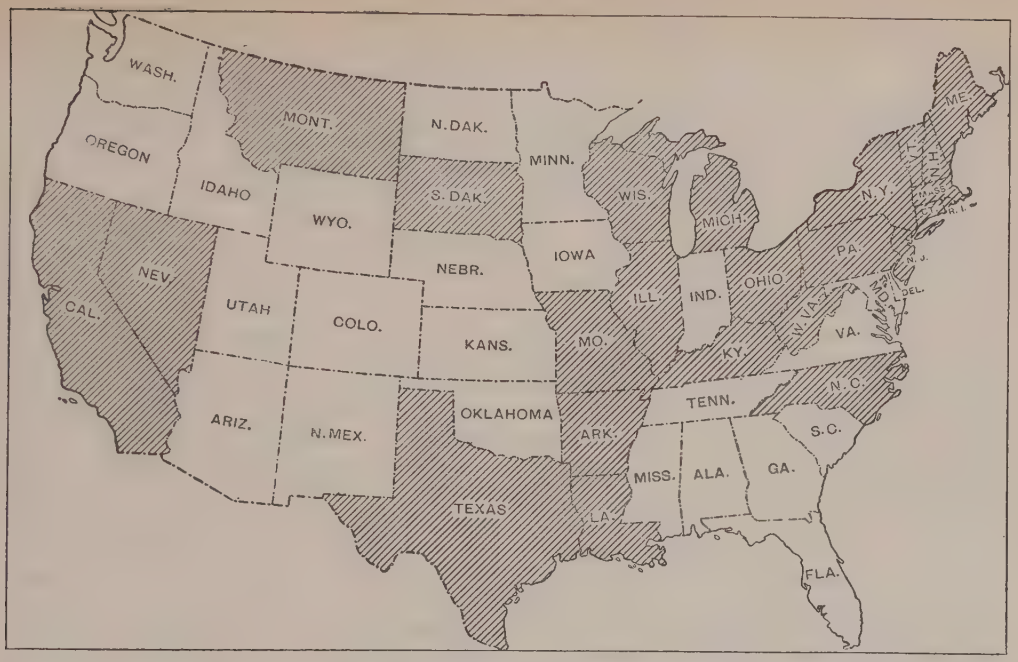
Geographical division.	Approximate population available for Protestantism, 1906.	No. Protestant communicants per 1000.	Approximate population available for Roman Catholicism, 1906.	No. Roman Catholic Communicants per 1000.
Continental United States.	60,515,697	335	22,930,555	523
North Atlantic States	14,587,918	324	9,878,393	614
New England...	2,149,479	435	3,786,861	500
Southern North Atlantic	12,438,439	306	6,091,532	686
Southern States.	22,273,940	372	3,492,515*	322
Middle West...	20,749,441	320	7,879,372	501
Far West.....	2,904,398	213	1,680,275*	496

* 1,000,000 population in Louisiana included as Roman Catholics. Estimated nonchristians excluded.

Attention has already been called to the fact that the Southern States are still populated principally by descendants of the original settlers, and that these States continued in 1906 to be the stronghold of Protestantism. In consequence the figures for the group of Southern States remain practically the same as presented for total population, but the significance of the table is revealed in the similarity to the proportions for the South shown by those of the other geographic sections after population readjustment.

The much greater proportionate support accorded the Roman Catholic Church by its constituency is especially noteworthy. It is significant, also, that the comparatively small Protestant element in New England offers the highest proportion of Protestant communicants. Probably the most important fact, however, which develops from the construction of this striking table is the marked difference in the support contributed in actual membership by each element. About one-third of every thousand persons classed as of Protestant affiliation are actually members of Protestant church organizations; on the other hand more than half of every thousand persons assumed to lean toward Roman Catholicism are members in that church.

* A Century of Population Growth; United States Census Office, 1909.



STATES (SHADED) IN WHICH THE INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF MEMBERS OF ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCHES PER EACH THOUSAND OF TOTAL POPULATION WAS GREATER THAN THAT OF MEMBERS OF PROTESTANT CHURCHES, 1906

This study has made it clear that the eddies of the mighty immigration stream have wrought extraordinary changes in the time-honored religious affiliation of States and the nation. The change in prevailing religious beliefs in the United States in half a century has been as remarkable as the changes in population and wealth. No similar movement has occurred elsewhere in the world during the same period. Communities and entire States holding definite and aggressive religious beliefs handed down from the earliest Protestant settlers have been invaded by great throngs of Roman Catholic immigrants and the prevailing viewpoint has already become completely reversed. This change, in turn, has led to extensive modifications of religious convictions, and much broadening of view. In short, the first general result of population change is a far-reaching readjustment of religious beliefs and affiliation wherever the immigrant has gone.

America has been the meeting-place, for the first time in history under entirely favorable conditions, of the two great opposing branches of the Christian faith. The Protestants were first upon the ground and put into actual practice the contention which was largely responsible for their historic origin at the period of the Reformation, freedom to worship God as the individual conscience dictated. Into the nation thus established have come great numbers of Roman Catholic immigrants. In the passage of the Atlantic and the freer air of the republic, the narrowness of their religious convictions has been greatly decreased, and the modifying effect of the two great elements each upon the other appears to have been in general highly beneficial to the nation, and probably unique in the world's history.

Meantime, if the census returns are to be accepted as trustworthy, these influences have been at work in the manner described without affecting the enthusiasm and religious activities of the community. In 1906 almost exactly half of the population above the age of ten years were members of religious bodies. In this period of alleged lack of interest in things spiritual the future of the republic continues full of promise when so large a proportion of its citizens are identified with institutions the sole aim of which is to elevate and benefit the human race.

THE REAL KEY TO RAILROAD INVESTMENT VALUES

BY JOHN MOODY

WHEN Mr. Thomas F. Ryan testified in court a year or two ago, in the Metropolitan Street Railway litigation, he made the statement that the railroads of America were enormously overcapitalized and that the entire outstanding stock issues represented "water," pure and simple, the only true values being reflected by the issues of bonds.

This is the view which has been held by a large proportion of the American public. In fact, it has been frequently stated in the public press and in legislative assemblies that not only do most of the railroad stocks represent "water" but that the bond issues themselves are largely of the same nature.

The fundamental error of this point of view consists in the notion that the true value of the railroad should be measured only by its original cost, and that if a railroad line represented a given amount of cash investment twenty-five years ago and has had no new cash capital put into it it has no more real value to-day than it did at the date of construction. But a very little demonstration will prove that this is not the way to measure the value of a railroad. In the railroad we have a type of property which is essentially distinctive and unlike most other business undertakings. The value of the railroad does not depend mainly or primarily on its cost of construction or on the actual amount of cash invested in it. The property owned by a railroad is not like that owned by a department store, or a manufacturing concern, or any other ordinary business undertaking. The normal state of the railroad is *motion*, not rest. A railroad which stopped running its cars would soon find its assets shrinking to nominal figures; and while it may own valuable terminals and rights of way, yet their chief value is usually in their use as a railroad route and for railroad purposes, and nothing else.

It is often said that the terminal properties owned by modern railroads in great cities are assets of vast and increasing value; and while this is true, the fact must not be overlooked that in relation to the capitalization of the roads themselves, as reflected by issues of stocks and bonds, the terminals and similar tangible values represent but a small proportion of the whole. The wonderful Pennsylvania Railroad terminals in and about New York City are easily worth in the neighborhood of $100,000,000. But to the Pennsylvania Railroad they are chiefly valuable in the use to which they are put as a part of the railroad system.

When it is once clearly understood that railroad property is normally and essentially *property in motion*, and that its value depends primarily on facts connected with never-ceasing action, the starting point has been found for arriving at a true valuation of railroad securities.

If we say that a good piece of railroad mileage, extending from New York to Buffalo, which cost $2,000,000 to construct fifty years ago, is now overcapitalized because it carries bond and stock issues aggregating $150,000,000, then we must agree that the whole industrial world is in a state of "overcapitalization." But if we measure railroad values on the basis of operating results, which is the only true way to measure them at all, we will reach a very different conclusion. A line of road stretching from New York to Buffalo, but which is not operating railroad trains and transporting passengers and freight between these points today, would be worth but little more than it was fifty years ago. Whatever increased value it might have now over that of 1860 would be in the mere right of way which it held. But under such conditions it would not be a railroad, and whatever value it might have would not be railroad value, but realty value.

If, however, we measure the value of the railroad by its demonstrated ability to pay interest or dividends on its issues of stocks and bonds, we then get at once at the kernel of the capitalization question. Putting our hypothetical railroad to the test of the earning power of fifty years ago, we would

probably find that on a capitalization of $50,000 per mile it earned hardly 6 per cent. But if we put the same line of road to the test of its earning power of to-day, we would be likely to find that on a capitalization at least ten times as heavy per mile it might be earning far more than 6 per cent. In the year 1863 the Lackawanna Railroad reported a total gross capitalization (stocks and bonds) of about $50,000 per mile. On this capital the net earnings of that year were but little in excess of 7 per cent. But in the year 1907 the same railroad reported a net capitalization, including the issues on its leased and controlled lines, and after deducting investments from its balance sheet, of something more than $148,000 per mile. On the latter figure the total net income of the road in the year 1907 was more than 18 per cent. Now, if we estimate the capitalization of the Lackawanna on the basis of earning power or net profits we will find that in 1863 the road was overcapitalized to the extent of more than 250 per cent., as compared with the figures shown to-day, while to put the Lackawanna capitalization on the basis of that of 1863 we would have to increase the present-day figure to over $420,000 per mile, or nearly three times the present net capitalization.

It will, therefore, be seen that the growth in value of a given railroad over a long period has more direct relation to changes in earning capacity than anything else. And there are always two important factors which vitally influence this earning capacity. One of these is the general increase from decade to decade in the population and wealth producing capacity of the territory through which the railroad runs. The other is the development of efficiency in the operation of the property itself. A good illustration of a railroad system which has received a large measure of benefit in both respects during the past ten or twelve years is shown in the case of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé. This property has been exceedingly fortunate in the unusual growth and development of its territory since 1898, and has also had the advantage of exceptionally efficient operating management. This management has continuously set in motion methods for developing new types of traffic, tapping new territory, and so handling the steadily increasing volume of business as to show a substantial or growing margin of profit on all the new business developed from year to year.

And here is where the much talked of "water" in railroad capital comes in. The steadily increasing efficiency and profit producing power of these great American railroad systems have, of course, been progressively capitalized, just as all other corporate values are capitalized. But a little reflection on the subject will show the strength of these values. Instead of being "water" they are of more importance frequently than the physical assets of the company, and indeed tend to steadily increase the worth of the physical property itself.

Starting then with the premise that railroad capital is primarily dependent for its value on the operating results or earning power of the property, one should have little difficulty in solving the question of actual value back of the different bond and stock issues. A great many investors, however, are apt to be extremely superficial in their examination of the earning power or operating results of the railroad. They are usually satisfied with knowing the aggregate amount of business which the road is reporting as earned after its operating expenses and prior charges are paid, and they seldom go into the question of analyzing in any way the operating costs. If the railroad is this year reporting 8 per cent. earned on its stocks where last year it reported but 6 per cent., they immediately jump to the conclusion that the earning capacity of the property has increased substantially, and, therefore, that their investment is growing rapidly in value.

Now this conclusion may or may not be correct. The mere fact that the net earnings of the road are increasing is no conclusive proof that the company is really making more money. It may be earning far less than was formerly the case, notwithstanding the fact that an apparently more favorable result is being shown through the curtailment of operating costs. And even though the gross receipts of the railroad are also increasing to a substantial extent, this is no definite indication that the road is making more money.

To determine whether a railroad is in a healthy state and legitimately earning the amount of profit which it is reporting, or which it may be paying out in dividends, one must confine his investigation, first of all, to the operating expenses of the property. Operating expenses are, broadly speaking, divided into two parts: the cost of running the trains and the cost of maintaining the property. The latter cost is the vital thing.

Because of the fact that railroad values are based so completely on operating results, and that the very existence of the railroad depends on the constant wearing out of the property, the maintenance expenses assume very great importance. Even the ordinary business man in any commercial line cannot keep his business going on an economical basis unless his methods are progressive and up to date; and to a far greater extent it can be said that no railroad can retain, not to mention increase, its earning capacity unless its property is maintained at a definite standard of efficiency. The great Pennsylvania Railroad system owes much of its success as a profit-producing organization to the liberal policy followed in the maintenance, at a high standard, of both its roadway and equipment. The same thing can be said of other great and successful properties, like the Lake Shore, the Illinois Central, the Union Pacific, and the Atchison; they have, in all cases, for a long series of years, followed a definite policy of maintaining the physical condition of their lines at a high standard. As a result of this, practically all of these roads are able to make a more healthy showing and report a more substantial net profit per unit of effort than lines which have paid less attention to maintenance costs.

The question of maintaining the physical condition of a railroad bears directly on the value of the road's securities,—not for a brief season only, but for all time. Where the policy has been followed of spending as little money as possible on the "up-keep" of the property, while the net earnings may for a brief season seem very favorable, yet when a setback comes in general business prosperity the company is usually not only in no position to curtail its operating costs or cut down its expense items, but is obliged to go into the money market and borrow funds to carry it through the hard times. Because of the low standard of maintenance followed its other operating costs remain more rigid than would otherwise be the case and have probably ranged all along at higher figures than might have been necessary under other conditions. This was exactly the situation in which many large railroads found themselves when the depression of 1907 set in. They not only found it impossible to cut down operating expenses radically as the gross business fell off, but found it imperatively necessary to borrow immense sums on short-time notes at high rates of interest to keep themselves afloat.

On the other hand, those properties which had followed a liberal maintenance policy and had spent large sums on developing the efficiency of operation were in a position quickly to curtail general operating expenses by cutting down maintenance costs for a season to a very pronounced extent, and doing this without really depreciating the condition of the properties. A notable instance of this kind is found in the case of the Union Pacific Railroad. Here the management was enabled to cut the maintenance costs almost in two, and, because of the efficient condition of the operating department as a whole, the transportation costs themselves were the more easily curtailed.

It should be unnecessary to point out further the vital importance to the holders of stocks and bonds of examining the maintenance policies of the railroads. In the instances cited the methods followed by the different companies have had a most direct influence on the values of the stock and bond issues, and the investor who has estimated the value of his holdings during the recent depressed period from the standpoint of the maintenance expenses of the properties has avoided many of the pitfalls which the more superficial holder has fallen into.

It should be further said that in order to examine intelligently the maintenance costs of a given railroad property the figures should be watched not for one or two years only but for a series of years. As in other things, results in railroading are relative, and judgment can be passed upon them only in relation to results shown on other properties. Therefore, in examining the maintenance figures of his railroad, the investor should in all cases compare them intelligently with the figures shown by similar properties in similar territory or carrying similar kinds of transportation. If the average holder of railroad stocks and bonds would uniformly seek for this key to the value of his holdings, a great advance would be made in knowledge of the strength or weakness of railroad security issues as a whole.

DO TRUSTS MAKE HIGH PRICES?

BY JEREMIAH W. JENKS

(Professor of Economics and Politics, Cornell University)

THE decided increase in the cost of living during the last few years has attracted the attention of the public and has led to investigation of the causes of this increase on the part of many people. Some ascribe the change chiefly to the tariff; others to the increased output of gold; others to the trusts, the great combinations of capital; others to similar associations of retail dealers; and so on. There seems to be little agreement as to the causes that are the most fundamental and perhaps still less as to the effect of any one of these important causes named.

Economic society is extremely complicated; its members work from so many different motives and upon so many different people that it is always difficult to determine with any degree of accuracy the cause of any social act. In most cases not one but several contributing causes unite to bring about any social change. It is probable that several causes have contributed to the increase in prices. It is of interest, however, to study some of these causes in detail, and I propose to inquire to what extent this increase in prices can be explained by the influence of the trusts.

It should be noted first that the advance in prices has not been confined to the United States, but has been world-wide. Moreover, the increase has not been confined to any one line of industry, but has been, with here and there an exception, general, and therefore it is due to causes that are practically universal. Sauerbeck's tables of world prices, published by the Royal Statistical Society in England, show a decided increase in prices during the last ten or twelve years, an increase that had been preceded by a decrease extending over a period of some eighteen or twenty years from about 1872. This decrease, again, had been preceded by a rise in prices from 1849 or 1850. The following brief table taken from the *Congressional Record* of January 31, 1910, shows the relative per cent. of prices at different times throughout this period. It shows practically an increase in prices in all lines of products from the year 1896 to the present time, the general average increase being from 61 to 73 +. One exception to these prices seems to be sugar, coffee, and tea, a decrease due to special causes.

PRICES

Basis, 100. Average per cent. prices from 1867-1877.

	1896.	1906.	1907.	1908.
	Years.			
Vegetable food (corn, etc.)	63	62	69	70
Animal food (meat, etc.)	73	89	88	89
Sugar, coffee, and tea	59	46	48	48
Total food	62	69	72	72
Minerals	63	101	107	89
Textiles	54	80	77	62
Sundry materials	63	74	78	73
Total materials	60	83	86	74
Grand total	61	77	80	73

The reason for this general rise in all products the world over cannot be due to any local cause like a tariff or a combination of manufacturers. The cause must be more fundamental and general and can be only a change in the value of the money material, gold, in which prices are stated as compared with commodities. Since 1896 the annual gold production of the world has more than doubled, while the annual world's coinage has increased to an even greater extent. The result of such coinage, of course, is that money, the measure of prices, has been rapidly cheapening. In other words, on account of the increased quantity of gold on hand, people are willing to give more of it for a fixed quantity of goods. Prices have risen. Of course throughout this period there have been many minor fluctuations in prices due to special causes, and prices of different products, owing to local conditions of production, have not increased in the same ratio, but the underlying influence has been felt with the result shown.

But the trusts have also had their influence, and this influence is worth some detailed study.

In order to get an accurate estimate of this influence of the trusts upon prices a study must be made of special articles,—some made by trusts, some made by independent competitors. A study of a few such articles will enable us to reach some reasonable conclusions. But before citing figures we may ask what the conditions of modern business would lead us to expect.

The organizers of great industrial com-

binations have usually asserted that they expect through the savings which could be made by combination to produce at much less cost than had been possible under a system of competition, with its many wastes. They claim that the trusts make large savings in freight charges, in running the best plants at full capacity while closing those less favorably equipped or situated, in the more advantageous distribution of material and orders so as to save labor, in the most effective use of the ability of experts and of superintendents by giving to each the opportunity to spend his full time on work for which he is best equipped, in doing away with competitive advertising, with useless duplication of selling agents, and of other classes of a labor force, and in many other ways. It has, indeed, been clearly demonstrated that some of these savings can be made by a wisely managed combination under many conditions, so that the cost of production may be in many instances considerably decreased.

On the other hand, it has been established in certain cases that, although the trust manufacturers might produce more cheaply than their competitors, they have not always found it advisable to reduce their selling price to an extent corresponding to the saving in the cost of production. Instead, they have increased their prices.

In other cases experience seems to have shown the managers of some of the larger combinations that it is good policy not to exploit the public too far by pushing prices very high, even when monopolistic power would permit such action, since it has been found that high prices call in new competitors, who in turn must be bought off or whose lower prices must be met at considerable loss. Some of the larger combinations, therefore, have thought it wise to maintain reasonable prices, so low that they would not tempt many competitors into the field, being thus satisfied with good profits that were steady instead of with first high profits and then low profits or none at all.

Again, the trusts have sometimes fixed prices at a certain rate and maintained them steady under changing conditions and varying costs of production, thus securing the confidence of customers, producers in other lines, and of the public. To steady prices has seemed to be the object rather than to seize every opportunity of securing high prices.

Let us note how the principles of trust management just mentioned are shown in special cases: The lines A, B, and C on Diagram I show respectively the price per pound in New York of raw sugar (96 degrees centrifugal), refined sugar (granulated), and the difference in price between these two, the so-called margin. This difference between the price of the raw and refined sugar, the margin, represents, of course, the cost of refining plus the profit to the refiners. It will be noted that at certain periods this margin has increased from about half a cent a pound to as much as a cent and more per pound. From testimony given before the

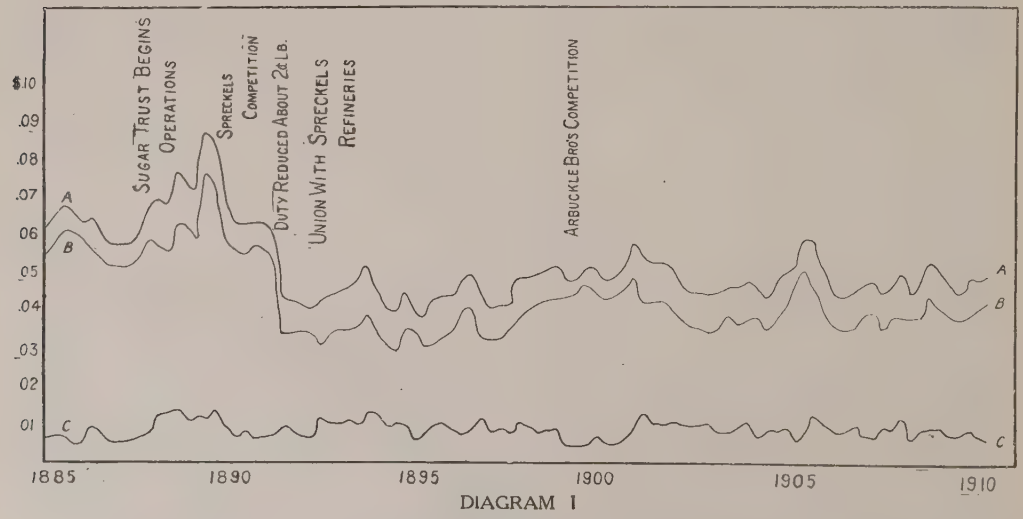


DIAGRAM I

(A. Refined sugar (granulated), per pound. B. Raw sugar (96° centrifugal). per pound. C. Margin between raw and refined sugar)

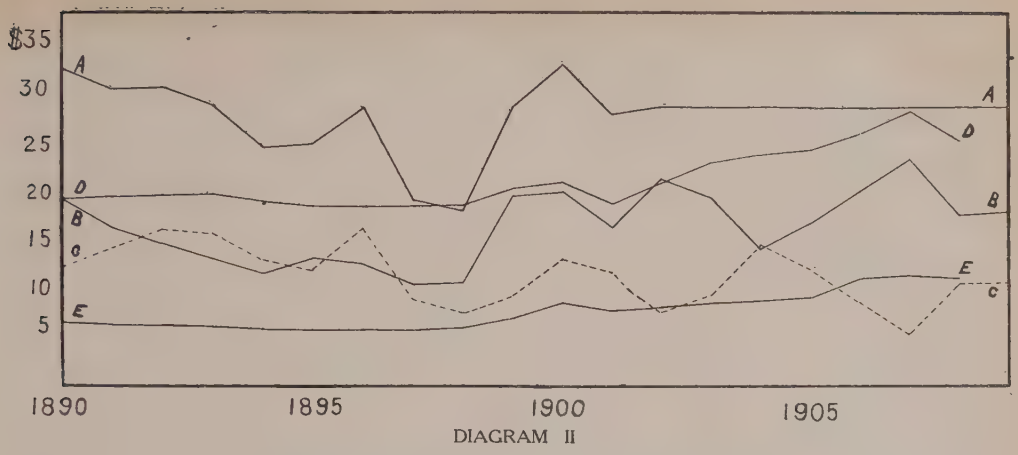


DIAGRAM II

(A. Steel rails, per ton. B. Pig iron (Bessemer), per ton. C. Margin between pig iron and steel rails. D. White oak, per 500 feet. E. Hemlock, per 500 feet)

Industrial Commission it is reasonably well known that the cost of refining sugar is not far removed from one-half a cent a pound. It is interesting to note that before the organization of the so-called sugar trust, the American Sugar Refining Company, in 1887, this margin under fierce competition had reached a point not far from one-half a cent a pound. Immediately after the organization the margin increased. This increase doubtless did not mean an increase in the cost of refining, but merely an increase in the profits. The margin remained at more than a cent a pound until late in 1889, when some important competing refineries were started by Claus Spreckels in Philadelphia. As the result of this new competition, lasting over a period of more than two years, the margin fell again to not much above half a cent. When Spreckels sold out to the American Sugar Refining Company in February, 1892, the margin increased at once, showing another large profit. In the years from 1898 to 1900 again there was vigorous competition, led mainly by Arbuckle Brothers and Claus Doscher, assisted by one or two others. The margin again dropped, as will be noticed, to not much above a half a cent a pound, when, apparently on account of some understanding reached among the different competitors, the margin was again increased to nearly a cent a pound, where with only minor fluctuations it has since remained. The cause of the late fall in margins I do not know. Possibly the late revelations regarding the business methods of the trust and the Government prosecutions may be the cause.

Whether this increase in the margin was justified or not need not here be considered at length. It is certain that before the organization of the trust the competition had been very fierce and that a large proportion of the refiners of the country, eighteen out of about forty, had gone into bankruptcy. It is also clear that the dividends of the American Sugar Refining Company have been steadily high, due presumably mainly to the large profits made by manufacturing, perhaps, in part, to methods much less worthy than are now being exposed in the courts. The point to be noted, however, is that the course of prices shows beyond doubt that the trust had the power to increase prices and did increase prices quite materially beyond those which existed when there was open and effective competition.

The influence of a combination upon prices is shown in a somewhat different, but scarcely less remarkable, way in the price of steel rails. If one regards the price of steel rails on the diagram (Diagram II, Line A), one sees the remarkable change after the year 1901. From 1902 to date the price has remained absolutely fixed at $28 a ton. During the period of strongest demand in 1905, 1906, and 1907 it was not possible for the steel manufacturers to supply the demand. Consumers would have been ready to pay prices far above those asked could they have been assured of prompt delivery, but the combination refused to increase its prices of either rails or structural steel, saying that it was a better policy to be satisfied with good profits, to develop the country by maintaining reasonable prices, and to assure the stability of trade by steady prices than to seize every opportunity to make the highest profit possible

in times of emergency. Although the diagram cannot show a margin that so accurately represents actual business conditions as does the diagram representing sugar, it still indicates in general the situation. The diagram shows that they maintained the rate with the margin of cost plus profit (Line C) steadily decreasing for four years, owing to the increased cost of material. Following the same policy, exhibited, however, in the opposite direction, after the crash of 1907, when demand fell off and smaller producers began to reduce their prices, the Steel Corporation still maintained its open rates and doubtless through most of the period its real rates at the prices fixed before the crisis, with profits high on the lessened number of sales actually made, until finally in February, 1909, owing to the very strong pressure, though the price of rails was maintained, it abandoned its policy in regard to some of its products and met its smaller competitors until it again obtained control of the market. In this instance we see the combination first holding prices down below the rate to which they beyond question would have gone under a system of general competition; and in the second place we note the maintenance of high prices, inasmuch as its smaller rivals could not fully supply the market. The power of the combination is shown about as strongly in the one case as in the other.

Other examples might be cited, as in the case earlier of the whisky trust, also apparently at certain periods, of the Standard Oil Company, of the wire-nail pool and others, to show that industrial combinations, the trusts, can within considerable limits dominate the market and fix prices, sometimes to their own benefit, at the expense of the public; sometimes, and perhaps more wisely in the long run, to the maintenance of steady prices at reasonable rates not detrimental to the public.

A study of Diagram III, showing the course of prices of cattle, of beef, of hides, of

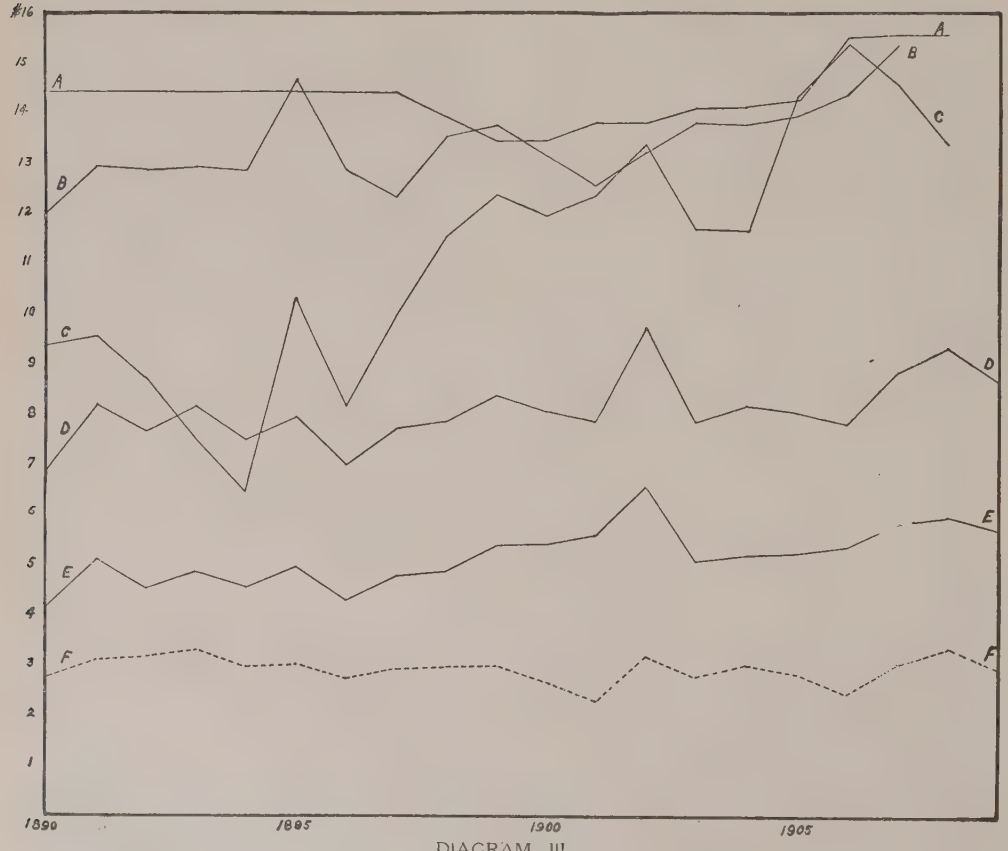


DIAGRAM III

(A. Shoes, per ½ dozen pairs. B. Leather, per 20 square feet. C. Hides, per 100 pounds. D. Beef, per 100 pounds. E. Cattle on the hoof, per 100 pounds. F. Margin between cattle and beef)

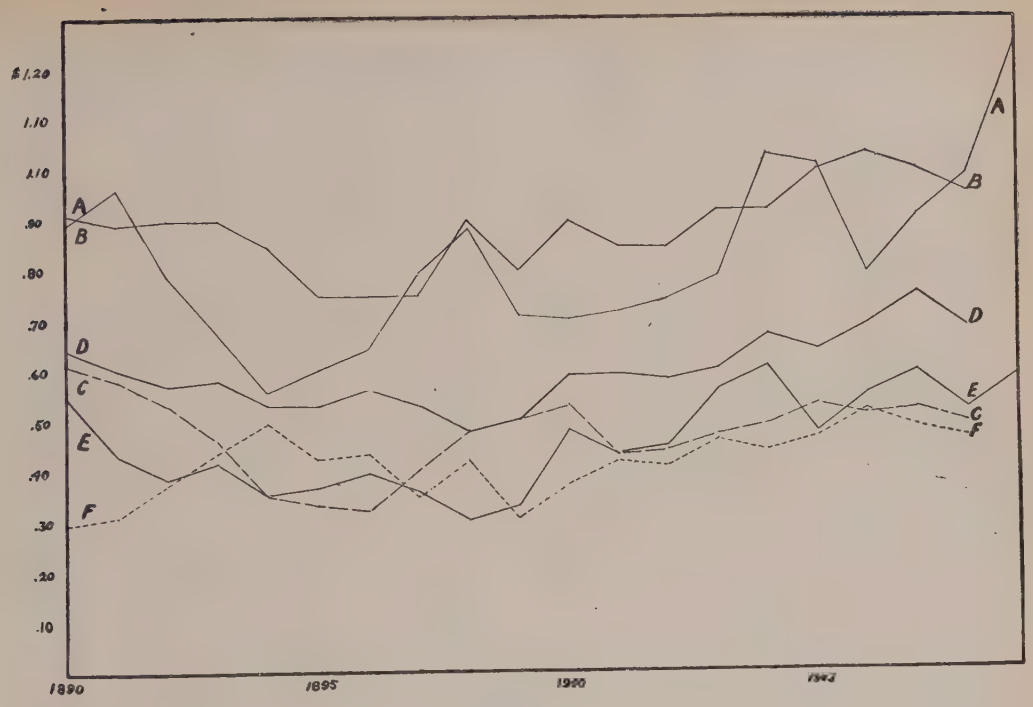


DIAGRAM IV

(A. Wheat, per bushel. B. Wool blankets, per pound. C. Wool, per pound. D. Sheeting, per 10 yards. E. Cotton, per 5 pounds. F. Margin between wool and blankets)

leather, of shoes, shows interesting facts along somewhat different lines. Much has been said with reference to the beef trust and its influence upon prices. It will be noted from the diagrams that, although there have been at times high margins between the cost of cattle (Line E) and the cost of beef (Line D), the margin in 1908 being especially high, with a decline in 1909, the prices of the two have, on the whole, tended to correspond quite strongly. The combination has largely followed the price of its raw material, which is not controlled by a trust. The price of cattle has been forced up by restricted grazing land, compelling the feeding of corn, which has also increased in price from the greater demand, higher cost of production, and limited supply.

The price of hides, with its remarkable fluctuations, affected in part by special conditions, perhaps by the tariff, have not been followed so closely, although the changes may be noticed in the price of leather, and that again, but not closely, in the variations in the price of shoes. Shoes, however, having their prices to a considerable extent dependent upon trade-marks, would not be expected to follow very closely the fluctuations in the prices of hides or leather, although the decided increase of late years has tended also to increase the price of shoes.

The very great fluctuations (Diagram IV) in the prices of cotton (Line E), of wheat (Line A), of wool (Line C), of lumber (Diagram II, Lines D and E), and in fact of many other articles, only slightly if at all controlled by trusts, raises the question as to how far the influence of the trusts is to be considered detrimental. A steady price is desirable. The diagrams show great unsteadiness in most competitive prices, and in practically all cases a noteworthy increase.

It is, of course, not just to compare the fluctuations in the prices of raw materials like wheat or cotton with those of certain manufactured products, such as shoes or steel rails or even sugar, because, owing to the fact that they are raw materials for which there is an enormous but a steady and insistent demand, and the further fact that the quantity of production is very largely dependent upon the seasons, the variations in supply are so large that there must be very great fluctuations in prices. The supply of steel is in no such sense dependent upon changes of season or other fortuitous influences. From

the nature of such farm products as those named, though a trust might control prices in certain lines, say fruit, it could hardly hold prices down in case of a crop failure, nor maintain them if the crop were unprecedentedly large.

On the whole it may be noted not merely from the prices first quoted in the table, but also from the course of prices illustrated in the diagrams, that the general trend of prices of most products since 1895 or 1896 has been strongly upward. This increase is doubtless primarily due to the depreciation in the relative value of gold, owing to its greatly increased production. On the other hand, the study of the course of prices of special articles shows that a great industrial combination like the American Sugar Refining Company or the United States Steel Corporation, or the Standard Oil Company, which controls a large percentage of the entire output, may exert a very decided influence upon the market in the way of either increasing or lessening the prices or of steadying them.

The diagrams also show that in certain instances at least the combinations have increased these prices beyond competitive rates, and presumably in some cases beyond what would be considered rates sufficient to produce a fair profit. But it shows equally well that in certain cases the combinations have felt it wise to hold prices down and to maintain steadiness of prices throughout great changes of demand. Since a number of the great trusts were formed before the general rise in prices began, and since their policy of exploitation of the consumer has usually been greatest at the beginning, we could, indeed, not say that the late increase in prices is due to them, even though they have exerted steadily some influence toward making some prices high. The general conclusion must be that the late great general increase in prices cannot be ascribed to the trusts, especially the prices that mainly affect the cost of living, though they are probably responsible for a small part of it. The diagrams taken as a whole bear out this general conclusion, as well as the assertion that the trusts may and do influence the prices of their products somewhat and in certain cases materially.

By "trusts and industrial combinations" one ordinarily means the great corporations whose operations are national, even world-wide in extent, and the statistical data given refer to them. The Secretary of Agriculture has lately called attention to local combinations of retail dealers who have possibly an even greater influence upon the cost of living. Although as yet there are no trustworthy statistics on a large scale that can enable us to prove such a general influence, personal observation in different localities confirms his statement. In small towns and cities the butchers and grocers often have associations to promote their common interests, and it is known that in some instances at least their activity goes to the extent of influencing city councils to place difficulties in the way of competitors from outlying towns, and even to agreements upon retail prices. It is much easier to secure statistics on matters that affect the whole country, such as the wholesale prices asked by the great combinations; but there is good reason for believing that a careful study of retail prices made in, say, one hundred different localities in various parts of the country, together with the margin of profit and cost of selling between wholesale and retail prices, would show an influence not less than that exerted by the great trusts.

It seems probable, too, that these local combinations would account to some extent not merely for high prices but also for increased prices, as the growth and influence of such organizations seem to be, relatively speaking, recent. It is to be hoped that the investigations to be undertaken by Congress will not overlook this important factor.

Much, too, has been said about the middlemen as a cause of the increased prices. Doubtless their profits add to the cost of living. There is, however, no reason for thinking that their profits are increasing. It is rather to be observed that, largely through the influence of the trusts, the tendency is strongly toward more direct contact between the manufacturer and consumer.

The question remains whether it is possible or desirable to prevent combinations of both types from holding this power which they may exercise for either the benefit or injury of the public. It is probably wise at the present stage of progress for the public so to make its laws and enforce them that the exact condition regarding production and profits may be promptly known by the public and by the Government, so that if this power is misused people may readily see where and how the abuses have arisen and may learn how promptly to apply the needed remedy. The remedy will be found when the facts are clearly shown.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

DO THE GERMAN-AMERICANS DICTATE OUR FOREIGN POLICY?

AN extraordinarily frank statement of the alleged aims and purposes of the Germans in the United States,—at least so far as they are expressed in that important organization, the German-American National League,—is given in a recent issue of the *Preussische Jahrbücher,* the serious Berlin review, by Dr. William Weber, a clergyman of Allegheny, Pa.

This writer sets forth the text of his thesis in the statement that an Anglo-American alliance against Germany is impossible, for two reasons: (1) Historic considerations forbid such an alliance; (2) the balance of power which the German-American element of our population is capable of exercising puts any such alliance out of the question. He cites the figures of recent Presidential elections and goes on, in substance, as follows:

The German-American National League, with Dr. Hexamer, of Philadelphia, at its head, counts, according to the last reports, 2,000,000 members, who are all American citizens and voters.

The main object of this League is, he tells us frankly, to combat prohibition.

That is to say, to represent the interests of the breweries, distilleries, and saloons. This is, to be sure, no lofty ideal aim, but it absolutely secures the League the requisite ready money for its propaganda, as well as zealous workers in every quarter and corner of the United States who labor for the League not only for the sake of an ideal, but for their daily bread.

This union, however, we are told further, outside of its anti-prohibition fight, stands also for "all the German ideal aims to which a loyal American citizen of German extraction may, and naturally does, cling."

This secures it the good will and co-operation of such circles also as do not specially concern themselves about the question of prohibition. But foremost among such ideal strivings is the maintenance of peace between Germany and the United States. The League has, in fact, already decisively and officially expressed itself to this effect,—under no circumstances an alliance with England against Germany.

The figures quoted prove, this writer maintains, that the League "can absolutely enforce this demand."

Its two million voters belong almost entirely to the Republican party. Should these two million German electors, dissatisfied with the attitude of that party toward Germany, break away from it at any time, it would mean the defeat of the Republican Presidential candidate. This calculation is so clear and convincing that the dominant Republican party will never initiate an inimical policy to Germany to please England,—at least as long as the German-American National League remains a solidly organized body.

Political influence, however, is always a seductive thing, and has led many a good man into dangerous waters, continues Dr. Weber, sententiously.

At the last meeting of the League a number of things were debated and determined which filled its more far-sighted friends with concern. The ship subsidy question, for example, might very well have been left to the decision of the two great parties. Anti-prohibition, a friendly American policy toward Germany, and the promotion of German instruction are quite sufficient problems. Should there be any clash with either party on any of these questions the members of the League would present a united front; while a falling out on some minor point, such as the ship subsidy question, would but lead to the discomfiture of the leaders; the members would not follow their guidance. It must always be borne in mind how hard it is to induce a man to forsake his party.

That the Democratic party will perchance seek to attract to itself the elements of the Republican party friendly to England by a policy favorable to that country the German writer considers a contingency "quite inconceivable."

The mass of the Democratic voters in the Northern States are Irish,—almost as numerous as the Germans,—who since the time of Cromwell have been animated by the bitterest hatred against the English. The Irish who emigrated to the United States brought this inborn hatred with them and bequeathed it to their American descendants. They and their children will, therefore, always be determined opponents of an American policy which should secure any special privileges to their hereditary enemy. This feeling of the Irish is all the more important since they are endowed with pre-eminent

political talents. They assured the German-American National League, moreover, of their support at once when the question of an Anglo-American alliance against Germany began to be discussed.

The German Empire, therefore, has not the slightest reason to be concerned about the attitude of the United States in a war conjured up by England.

The senseless courting of the friendship of the United States, into which several influential Englishmen have allowed themselves to be misled, must rather be characterized as a gratifying symptom. The English apparently renounce the idea of engaging Germany single-handed. And that guarantees general peace. For Germany needs no war in order to afford her transmarine commerce and her colonies a chance of prosperous development.

BETTER FARMING TO UPBUILD THE NEW SOUTH

"A VITAL revolution in the farming economy of the South, if it is actually occurring, is necessarily carrying with it all future Southern politics, and Southern relations, and Southern art, and such an agricultural change is the one substantial fact upon which any really New South can be predicated." So wrote more than thirty years ago the poet, Sidney Lanier; and taking this paragraph for his text, Mr. Clarence H. Poe, editor of the *Progressive Farmer* (Raleigh, N. C.), discourses in the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science on the absolute necessity of agricultural revolution, if the South is to come into her own again. The last census showed that more than 80 per cent. of the population in the Southern States is rural; and it is the fact that "in the South more people are engaged in agriculture than in all other occupations combined." Further, the same census revealed that, whereas the average annual value of products per farm in the North Atlantic States was $984, that for the South Atlantic States was but $484, or exactly $500 less. To bring up $500 more a year the earning power of each Southern farm is, says Mr. Poe, "the supreme task and opportunity of our generation," a "realizable ideal," and "one upon the success of which depends the prosperity not only of the South as a section and Southerners as a whole but also, and more important, the prosperity of every Southerner,—the farmer no more than the banker, the merchant, the railroad man, the lawyer, the preacher, the teacher, the statesman."

Mr. Poe calls attention to the truism that "the poorer every other man is the poorer you are. The richer every other man is the richer you are." And this doctrine is true whatever the color of the man. It is true in the South to-day.

> The ignorant negro in the South to-day is a great economic burden. . . . I do not know what we are going to do with him. I do know that we must either frame a scheme of education and training that will keep him from dragging down the whole level of life in the South, that will make him more efficient, a prosperity maker and not a poverty breeder, or else he will leave our farms, and give way to the white immigrant. . . . Our greatest need to-day is for more intelligent and better trained labor, and we must either have the negro trained or we must not have him at all.

The average man in the South being a farmer, "the fullest and freest training of the average man is the one and only positive guarantee of Southern prosperity." Of the agencies to be used there is, first of all, the school; the energy put into the new educational crusade must be doubled. "There is no time to dispute about the forms of education." More common-school, high-school, technical-school, college, and classical education is needed. First of all, greater attention must be given to the public schools. It is "in them that the farmer,—the average man,—gets his education. We cannot improve our farming until we educate our farmers." Not only are longer public-school terms necessary but better public schools are needed. And these must "train for life, for practical things."

> Teach the farm boy how cotton and corn and tobacco may be improved by seed selection; how a plant feeds and how soils are exhausted; what elements are found in common feed stuffs and which make fat and which make muscle; which cows make money in the dairy and which should be selected for beef,—and a thousand other things. Not only should the elements of agriculture be a public-school study in the rural districts, but there should be a revolution in the text-books for other studies. . . . Made by city people for city people, the books and teaching have not been adapted to the needs of the country children. . . . The farmer girl, too, must learn of food values, of the chemistry of cooking, of hygiene, and of sanitation.

While the farmer's boy is being educated, the farmer himself is being educated by a dozen agencies. "Chief among these are the farm papers, the farmers' co-operative demonstration work, farmers' clubs, and the farmers' institutes. In the past ten years the efficiency of the farm press of the South has doubled. It distributes annually millions of pieces of literature, including practical farm experiences, clear-cut agricultural philosophy, the teachings of scientists and experimenters interpreted for the every-day farmer," forming altogether a "never-ceasing practice-school which makes a leaven that would of itself ultimately leaven the whole lump."

The farmers' institutes bring face to face with the farmer not only the agricultural leaders of each State but often "agricultural machinery, agricultural equipment, etc., which the farmer would not otherwise come to understand."

Exceedingly useful work is being done by the farmers' clubs also. Formerly there were "farmers' organizations which studied politics chiefly"; now there exists the Farmers' Union with millions of members, whose chief object is to encourage scientific farming.

Mr. Poe considers that "the most effective plan ever originated for helping the Southern farmer is the Farmers' Co-operative Demonstration Work,—a plan of such patent merit that it is a wonder that Adam did not think of it."

The plan is to have a strong man like Dr. Knapp at the head of the general movement. Then in each State the most successful and most progressive farmer who can be had is named as State agent. Similarly in each county or district the best farmers join in as local agents,—and so on, until hundreds and thousands of farmers are enthusiastically at work, each one acting under instructions from the most progressive and successful farmer of his neighborhood.

Mr. Poe cites four important facts which all Southerners should remember:

1. The well-being of every individual is measured by the efficiency of the average man.

2. The great majority of these common people of the South being farmers, Sidney Lanier was right when he declared "that an agricultural change is the one substantial fact upon which any really New South can be predicated."

3. The possibilities of such an agricultural change are indicated by the fact that the average value of products per farm for the South Atlantic States is $500 less per year than for the North Atlantic.

4. This agricultural revolution can be brought about only by a better scheme of rural education.

The one imperative and immediate duty of Southern citizenship is to see "that in every State a comprehensive and well-rounded policy of rural development is inaugurated."

CORN AND PELLAGRA

IT is estimated by competent authorities that there are in the United States 50,000 sufferers from the terrible disease pellagra, the presence of which in this country is causing so much apprehension. The name given to it in Spain, where it has been known since 1735, is "Mal de la rosa," from its characteristic erythema which resembles an ordinary sunburn. In southern Italy, where its prevalence,—there were 100,000 cases in 1907,—is attributed to the use by the peasantry of damaged maize, it is known as "Italian leprosy." In the *South Atlantic Quarterly* for January Prof. James J. Wolfe, of Trinity College, in treating of the causative agent and the method of infection of pellagra, says:

The disease in its acute form is rapidly fatal, and as yet no method of treatment devised has availed to arrest its progress. Death is certain and usually occurs in a few weeks or a few months. The chronic type is milder, and, according to Italian writers, chronic pellagrins have lived for twenty or thirty years. . . . The disease is periodic, severe attacks coming in the early spring or late winter, becoming mitigated toward fall, and even entirely disappearing in winter, only to reappear the following year. These attacks are generally successively more grave until death closes the scene, which is one of utter misery.

The symptoms are almost similar in both types: erythema, stomatitis, and diarrhœa. The erythema, which at first resembles a severe case of sunburn, later "becomes darker in color and looks rather much like a dirty patch of eczema." It usually appears on the backs of the hands, forearms, face, neck, and on the feet of those who habitually go barefooted. The curious appearance of this erythema is illustrated by the following incident:

In 1907 at the hospital for the insane at Peoria, Ill., the bodies of some patients when turned over to relatives for burial presented the appearance of having been scalded. Complaint

was made to the authorities, and the nurses were discharged in the belief that these patients had been scalded in the bath through the carelessness of the nurses. Since then the authorities have admitted that these appearances were due to pellagra, and the nurses have been reinstated.

As stated above, in Italy the disease is associated with damaged maize. Carmen Sylva, writing twenty years ago, said (*Forum,* June, 1889): "Rather than give up the use of spoiled maize, they [the peasants] endured the horrible disease, pellagra, in which the body slowly becomes coal black, and the patient falls into the profoundest melancholy and lowest state of physical prostration." In the United States, however, it has been found that poverty is "at most only a contributory factor"; for Dr. Sara A. Castle, of Meridian, Miss., reported to the recent Conference on Pellagra at Columbia, S. C., that "of the many cases treated by her six were socially prominent in the city." Of the various theories suggested as to the cause of the disease, the most prominent is that known as the "verdet" theory, so called "from the greenish color produced on damaged corn by the moulds which grow upon it." This was first suggested by Bellardini in 1844, whose followers "believed that spoiled corn contained a toxic substance produced by these moulds and that the continued taking of this substance into the body was the cause of pellagra." Investigations by the late Césare Lombroso seemed to confirm this theory. "The pellagrins of Italy," says Professor Wolfe, "have come very generally to regard their malady as a direct result of eating pollenta made from damaged corn."

The "most important contribution yet made to the study of pellagra" is a paper published a few months ago in Rome by Tizzoni. This experimenter "was able to get pure cultures of a specific bacillus from the blood and fecal material of persons afflicted with pellagra," which "when hypodermically injected into guinea-pigs invariably resulted in death." The symptoms were similar to those in human beings. As a result of these experiments "it would seem that it may be regarded as settled that pellagra is a bacterial disease." Tizzoni has given to the organism causing pellagra the name *Streptobacillus pellagræ.*

Tizzoni experimented with the corn theory; and some remarkable results were obtained. We condense Professor Wolfe's observations on these:

It is found that there is in some damaged corn an organism which is, in every particular, identical with that of pellagra, and which, when injected into animals, produces a disease identical with that produced by cultures derived directly from human pellagrins.

It is impossible to infect an animal by way of the stomach unless corn be a constituent of its diet. Thus it would seem that sound as well as damaged corn is a contributing factor in the contraction of pellagra.

Sound corn seems to exercise a predisposing influence which lasts over a considerable period when fed preliminary to infection. Corn, good or bad, is a necessary concomitant in contracting the disease through the digestive system. But the disease cannot be produced in animals by simply feeding them damaged corn.

In view of these facts Professor Wolfe asks, "Why then is the appearance of pellagra among us but recent when we have used corn so long?" In reply he states that the recent outbreak of pellagra is by no means the first appearance in this country. Cases can be traced as far back as 1864; and, though these and subsequent ones in 1883 and 1889 may have been sporadic, "there is a growing opinion among insanity students that a large percentage of the inmates of our asylums are there as a result of long-standing cases of pellagra."

Modern methods of harvesting are supposed to have some importance in this connection. The entire stalks,—leaves, ears, and all,—are cut down; they remain in the shocks for months; fermentation goes on; and quite a large percentage of the corn is found to be damaged when it is finally husked and milled.

The remarkable fact about the pellagra organism is that cooking does not destroy it. Tizzoni found that it withstood a temperature of 194 degrees Fahrenheit for one hour without injury. In order to get some idea of the heat developed in the usual method of cooking corn bread, the writer inserted a thermometer in a corn cake while it was being cooked on top of the stove. The temperature was observed every two minutes for one hour. The highest temperature reached was 178 degrees Fahrenheit, and that only for a few minutes.

The important net result of experiments so far made is that "while it may be true that corn is not the only means whereby the *streptobacillus pellagræ* finds entrance into the human system, it may be fairly concluded that it is at least one means." Therefore, as Professor Wolfe wisely suggests, "it behooves those who would use caution to avoid corn."

TROLLEY CARS WITHOUT RAILS

AMERICANS have become so accustomed to the presence of rails in the main streets of their cities and in many of their suburban roads that they would be somewhat surprised could they but see one of the commodious electrically propelled vehicles now in use in some of the towns of France, Germany, and Holland, which, while deriving their power from overhead wires, run upon no rails whatever. Twenty-eight years ago Siemens & Halske, the well-known English electrical engineering firm, constructed an omnibus "to be propelled by an electric motor receiving its energy from an overhead wire, a small eight-wheeled carriage running on the wire and drawn by the omnibus itself." A similar system was originated in France by Messrs. Bonifiglietti and Lombard-Gérin; and it is the name of the latter engineer that is usually given to this type of electric traction. Writing in *Cassier's* for February, Mr. R. Lonneman gives an account of the railless system now being operated between Neuenahr (via Ahrweiler) and Walporzheim in Germany. The main features of the system are as follows:

The energy for operating the motor cars is transmitted through two overhead wires, one being positive and the other negative, these wires being of hour-glass section, and separated by a distance of 50 centimeters, each wire having a cross section of 50 square millimeters. The connections to the vehicle are made through two trolley poles or by one double-contact pole. The contacts are made not by the use of the ordinary trolley wheel, but by the use of a sliding aluminum block. The omnibus is provided with a series direct-current motor of 25 horse-power.

The ordinary speed attained was 18 kilometers an hour,—rather more than eleven miles,—but a maximum speed of 25 kilometers an hour is possible.

In one particular the Neuenahr - Walporzheim line presents a radical departure from general practice. In all self-propelled vehicles not running on rails it is customary to apply the power to the rear axle. In the system described above the forward axle, carried on a two-wheel bogie, is the one to which the motor is attached, instead of the rear axle, as is customary in nearly all motor omnibuses. This bogie is pivoted on ball-bearings and connected to the steering wheel through a reduction gearing. This reduces the danger of side-slipping.

Of course, the most important feature of the railless system is the saving of all expense of track construction. Further, although the quantity of current consumed per ton-mile is larger than with the tramway, this is offset to a great extent by the considerably less weight of the vehicle. The railless traction system holds a place between that of the petrol motor omnibus and the electric tramway:

It shares with the motor 'bus the advantages of large saving in initial capital expenditure and the ability to be steered around obstructions, while at the same time it has the advantage of using the series electric motor, which possesses ideal properties for traction purposes.

The "railless" can be used with advantage in all locations in which the usual horse-omnibus is operated successfully. It is particularly useful in portions of cities where the narrowness of streets will not admit of a tramway. Mr. Lonneman thinks that it may be found useful in extending the radius of existing tramway systems until the growth of traffic warrants extensions of the main lines by carrying passengers to the terminals. The latest line to be constructed on this system is at Mulhouse, Alsace, but the working data of this are not yet available and so comparisons are not feasible.

A RAILLESS TROLLEY TRAIN NEAR WURZEN, GERMANY

WIRELESS ON MOVING TRAINS

IF an Atlantic liner plowing the waves at the rate of 25 miles an hour can utilize the benefits of wireless telegraphy, why may not the ordinary locomotive be made similarly serviceable on land? This is the problem which the Union Pacific Railroad Company has been endeavoring to solve since it began a series of experiments in the latter part of 1907. The successful transmission of wireless messages across thousands of miles of water has long been an accomplished fact. The Signal Corps of the United States Army is arranging to communicate from land depots to dirigible balloons. Now comes the news that a great railway organization is planning to control, "by wireless communication, railway trains running at any rate of speed."

The Union Pacific's expert at the company's shops at Omaha, Neb., is Dr. Frederick H. Millener, at one time a physician in Buffalo, N. Y., but now an electrical engineer. At odd times in the shops he constructed a wireless apparatus for ringing a bell at some distance from the operator. This may be said to have been the beginning of what is likely to prove one of the most startling innovations in the operation of railroad signals. Mr. Robert F. Gilder, from whose narrative in *Putnam's* for February we gather these details, relates that, soon after, Dr. Millener was consulted by the vice-president and general manager of the company as to the possibility of "communicating with moving trains throughout the medium of wireless waves." Dr. Millener stated that he thought it could be done. He was then told to go ahead with his experiments, it being understood that the block signals were not in any way to be interfered with and that wires were not to be connected with trains or tracks. Dr. Millener began by constructing a portable wireless sending station; then an electric storage-battery truck was equipped with wireless apparatus, and it was found that the truck could be easily controlled by the operator at the station, being started forward, stopped, and backed with certainty and ease. In November, 1908, the device was tested on a switch engine in the company's yards, but the jolting of the locomotive showed that it was not "fool-proof." Dr. Millener then went to work again on his experiments, with the result that many months later he had constructed a cab signal consisting of a brass box, in the front of which was a glass disk showing a red electric bulb and a semaphore.

DR. FREDERICK H. MILLENER
(Who has devised a wireless apparatus for use on moving trains)

Attached to the outside of the box is a gong. . . . When the current at the sending station was thrown on, the antennæ on the roof of the cab caught the electric waves, and the gong on the signal box clanged loudly enough to attract the attention of the engineer; at the same moment the electric bulb blazed and the semaphore assumed the "block" or danger position, following the motion of the semaphores of the block-signal system. (The antennæ on the roof of the cab have since been dispensed with. The electric waves now act directly on the locomotive itself.)

The experiments at the Omaha shops have so far advanced that communication by wireless is held daily between the shops and Fort Omaha, 4 miles distant, the electric truck at the shops being "satisfactorily controlled by the operator at the Fort." Aerial towers 150 feet high have been erected on the roof of the company's boiler-shop, and messages have been read from Brant Rock, Mass., Cleveland, Chicago, New Orleans, and from a steamer in Havana harbor. It may not be

generally known that "in the operation of a wireless plant on land a large area of ground covered with metallic netting is required to intercept and gather the electric waves." For this purpose Dr. Millener will utilize the scrap-iron piles in the shops as well as the track system of the yards. Dr. Millener claims that there will be no danger in electrifying the rails, as "any persons coming in contact with the rails would never know that a high voltage was passing through them."

Experiments have also been made with wireless telephony; and it appears that its adaptability to moving trains is much easier than was expected. The details of the system have not been made public, but it is known that "the message to a person riding in a passenger coach to which the wireless apparatus is attached is sent to a point along the line of railway nearest to the moving train by the use of an ordinary telephone, and there plugged into a wireless telephone switchboard in order to establish connection with the train." The system has worked satisfactorily in the Union Pacific shop yards.

WHAT AMERICANS OWE TO CUBA

JUST at this time, when Cuba has completed her first year of independence, it will be interesting to read an article on the relations between the United States and the Cuban republic, by Señor Dr. E. Rodríguez Lendián, which appears in a recent number of the *Revista de la Facultad de Letras y Ciencias,* published by the University of Havana. The writer has treated this rather difficult subject in an eminently impartial spirit, and he gives much good advice to the Cubans regarding the conduct best calculated to promote their true interests. After reviewing the historic development of the policy of the United States in regard to Cuba, Señor Lendián proceeds to the consideration of present and future conditions. For him, great as is Cuba's debt to America, our country owes Cuba something in return. Of this he says:

> If it is certain that we owe much to the United States, namely, our liberty and independence, the United States also owes to us the impulse given to that country's world-wide expansion. For a long time the United States had been seeking to find a way for the extension of its authority up to the Caribbean Sea, dislodging Spain from her colonies; but this expansion was always arrested by the difficulty that, without some justifiable motive, force could not be used, that Spain invariably refused the offers made her to purchase Cuba for a more or less considerable sum of money. A dreadful struggle, in the course of which much blood was spilled on our green fields, and many tears were shed in our sad homes, was therefore necessary before the United States could find the just and reasonable motive for intervention. Hence our bloody struggle not only enabled the American Government to drive Spain out of America, but also to consummate that world-wide expansion, the consequence of a policy consistently pursued for a century, a policy rooted in the most irresistible tendencies of the American spirit.

Señor Lendián believes that the opening of the Panama Canal and the immense commercial development that will ensue will render Cuba more important than ever before, and he also believes that this constitutes a grave danger, which may menace the independence of the island. He recognizes, however, another factor, which plays a most important part in the relations of Cuba with the United States. Of this he says:

> Another source of grave danger for Cuba is our manners and customs, the idiosyncrasy of our people, and this may lead to our destruction. I express my thought very frankly. I understand that the people of the United States wish for our island, and love Cuba as a man loves a beautiful woman; but, in spite of this, just as for a century America had grave scruples against seizing the island, even when only opposed by a nation like Spain, weakened by civil and colonial wars, so, at the present time, the American Government will proceed cautiously, faithful to its policy of respecting the independence of Cuba. . . . Thus, although with the opening of the Panama Canal the danger increases that Cuba will be absorbed by the United States, because of the resulting political and commercial importance of the island, this danger could, nevertheless, be averted, if the idiosyncrasy, the manners and customs of our people, were different. For I sincerely believe that the United States Government will be likely to maintain the policy so far pursued,—one not of annexation, but of recognition of Cuban individuality,—*so long as we do not make trouble for it, or give it a motive for action.* . . . The good conduct of the Cuban people, respect for the law, honest administration, the maintenance of peace, and an open and ever-increasing demonstration of progress in all the orders of human activity, can avert the grave danger which menaces our future, and will spare us the misfortune and humiliation of not having known, through lack of prudence and patriotism, how to preserve the sacred independence of our land, so as to transmit it intact to our sons.

FROM CANOE TO STEAMBOAT ON THE GREAT LAKES

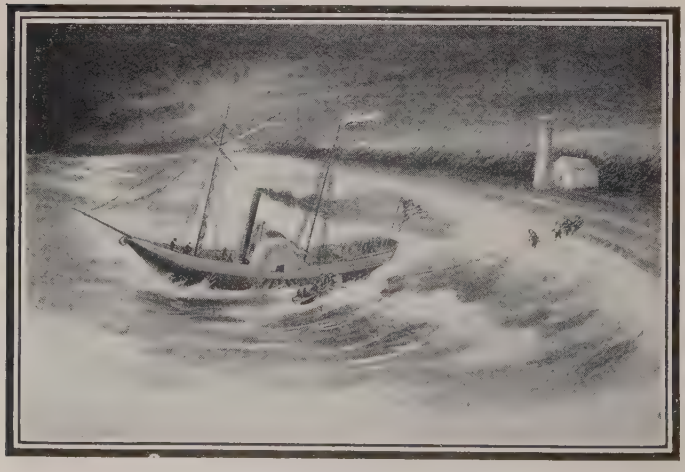
THE Indian canoe was for hundreds of years the only means of conveyance on the Great Lakes and their connecting rivers. Many a time one might be seen laden with two or three tons of furs in a trip from the trading stations on the upper lakes to the Niagara frontier. In *Cassier's* for February the development of navigation on the Great Lakes is traced, in an unusually interesting article by Mr. James Cooke Mills, through its various stages up to 1825, from which year steamboats multiplied rapidly on these inland waterways.

It was not until ten years after Robert Fulton had produced his first successful steamboat that the Indians along the shores of the Lakes had "their first sight of 'the big canoes belching fire and smoke.'" In the interval between the birch-bark canoe and the steamer there had been the bateau and the Mackinac boat, evolved by the early French explorers, and these had been followed by the barge, "towed or poled along the shores and through the streams by the force of human strength," and this, in turn, by the sailing vessel. Two large steam vessels launched on Lake Ontario in 1816 were so defectively fitted as regards their machinery that both were nearly wrecked, and it was not until some time later that they were rendered seaworthy. The first steamboat to prove a success on the Great Lakes,—that is, to ply regularly and to pay dividends,—was one rejoicing in the singular name *Walk-in-the-Water*. Mr. Mills thus explains the origin of this curious appellation:

When Fulton first steamed his boat, the *Clermont*, up the Hudson in 1807, an Indian standing on the river bank, gazing long and silently at the boat moving upstream without sail, finally exclaimed: "Walks in water!" . . . He observed the paddle-wheels revolving slowly, and intuitively comprehended that when a paddle struck the water there was a step forward.

The name was, however, too long for common use, and, being the only boat of her class on Lake Erie, the vessel was generally spoken of as "the steamboat." She was built in the village of Black Rock, at the mouth of Scajaguda Creek, and was launched on May 28, 1818. In the present age of "floating palaces" the description of her dimensions and equipment is of more than passing interest:

She was 135 feet length of deck, 32 feet breadth, and 8 feet 6 inches depth of hull, registering 338 gross tons. She had two masts, carrying mainsail, foresail, and foretopmast-staysail, which were always used when the wind was favorable. Her paddle-wheels were placed exactly amidships, and the machinery was below the deck. The boiler was forward of the wheels and measured 20 feet long by 9 feet in diameter, while the long smokestack pointed upward rakishly, the whole effect causing a native Frenchman, upon seeing the vessel for the first time, to exclaim: "Jean, Jean, just see what are these Yankees a-sending us now but a sawmill!"



"WALK-IN-THE-WATER," THE FIRST STEAMBOAT TO MAKE REGULAR TRIPS ON THE GREAT LAKES

The boat's speed, ten miles an hour, was considered wonderful. She carried 100 passengers in the cabins and a larger number in the steerage. Wherever she touched the banks were lined with astonished spectators. Indians who saw her were terrified. The rates seem to have been very high,—from Black Rock and Buffalo to Detroit, cabin $18, steerage $7,—and the round trip occupied about ten days. The *Walk-in-the-Water* never entered the stream at Buffalo, "for the very good reason that

A MODERN STEAMSHIP IN THE GREAT LAKES TRANSPORTATION SERVICE

no harbor existed there the waters of which would have floated her."

To aid the boat in her maiden trip up the Niagara River the shore end of a line from the boat was hitched to a yoke of oxen, which tugged steadily, "the combined efforts of beasts and steam proving sufficient to move the vessel forward." This was the historical "horned breeze" on the Niagara River. After an eventful but short career of three profitable seasons the vessel was wrecked in a storm, striking "the light, sandy beach just above the old lighthouse, and nearly opposite the foot of Main street, Buffalo."

Great rivalry existed between Black Rock and Buffalo on the question where the successor to *Walk-in-the-Water* should be built, but Buffalo gained the day, her citizens guaranteeing that the channel of Buffalo Creek should be deepened in time to admit of the new vessel being floated out to the lake. The new boat, named the *Superior,* was launched on April 16, 1822. After her third trip she made Buffalo her stopping-place, and from this time the town began that career of prosperity which has made her "the metropolis of the western lake country," while her old rival, Black Rock, for whom many had predicted great things in the commercial world, became "only a dot on the map." The *Henry Clay,* a sister ship to the *Superior,* was built in 1824-5; the *Superior* was converted into a sailing vessel in 1835, her machinery being placed in a new boat, the *Charles Townsend,* and in 1843 she was lost in a gale. From 1825 the extension of steam navigation on the Lakes kept pace with the times.

PREHISTORIC MAN RESTORED

RECENT visitors to the Peabody Museum at Yale will doubtless remember the statue representing the prehistoric man. This restoration is the work of Dr. Richard S. Lull, assistant professor of vertebrate paleontology at Yale University and one of the associate curators of the Peabody Museum; and it shows his conception of the type of mankind in what is known to scientists as the earlier paleolithic period. In the *Independent* Dr. Lull explains the lines on which his restoration proceeded, and describes the remains which form the basis of his conception of our prehistoric ancestors.

In 1856 the "earliest known authentic remains" of paleolithic man were discovered in a cave known as the Feldhofer Grotte, in the Neanderthal Valley, Germany. They consisted of a portion of the skull and a number of important bones. Unfortunately the bones were "thrown out of the cave with the loam in which they lay, and were afterward collected, so that the original condition of the skeleton, together with its position, is

A MODERN RESTORATION OF THE PREHISTORIC MAN

(From the cast by Prof. Richard S. Lull, of Yale)

not surely known." According to Professor Schaafhausen, the dimensions of the bones other than the skull indicated that the "height and relative proportions of the limbs were quite those of a European of middle stature." The cranium was of the average capacity of Polynesian and Hottentot skulls; and Huxley considered it "the most ape-like of human crania yet discovered." The large mass of brain, however, would, he said, "alone suggest that the ape-like tendencies did not extend deep into the organization." The discovery of these remains gave rise to much heated discussion. It was claimed by some that the Neanderthal man was "but an idiotic waif of humanity and not the representative of a type." These objectors were, however, silenced by the discovery in 1886 at the mouth of a cave at Spy, in Belgium, of "two skeletons of the Neanderthal type, under conditions which left no question of their genuineness and antiquity, as they were evidently contemporaries of the quaternary fauna the remains of which were found embedded with them." Dr. Lull cites Huxley's description of these men of Spy, which is interesting enough to warrant reproduction here. It reads:

> The anatomical characters of the skeletons bear out conclusions which are not flattering to the appearance of their owners. They were short of stature but powerfully built, with strong, curiously curved thigh bones, the lower ends of which are so fashioned that they must have walked with a bend at the knees. Their long, depressed skulls had very strong brow ridges; their lower jaws of brutal strength and solidity sloped away from the teeth downward and backward, in consequence of the absence of that especially characteristic feature of the higher type of man, the chin prominence.

Similar remains have been discovered elsewhere associated with a hot climate fauna and crude implements; and some of the bone fragments show the calcining effects of fire. After a careful investigation of the various remains, and a study of the measurements of the skulls and other bones, Dr. Lull reached the following conclusions concerning the prehistoric man:

> The total height is much less than that of the average Caucasian of to-day, being for this adult man but 5 feet 3 inches. The muscles are clean cut, powerful, but displaying no superfluous flesh, for I imagine the struggle for existence against climatic inclemency, scarcity of food, and enemies of the brute creation, as well as the shrewder foes of his own kind, was bitter to an extreme. The torso is also clean cut and athletic in my conception,—like that of a North-American Indian in his prime as a

hunter, for the conditions of life were probably quite similar on either hand.

With regard to the popular conception of the relationship of prehistoric man with the modern great apes, Dr. Lull observes that the latter "are no more ancestral to the primitive man than is a present-day European."

The great apes are mainly vegetarians, and as such have somewhat shapeless bodies, for such a diet requires a much greater quantity of food for the maintenance of strength, and a consequently larger body to contain it. That paleolithic man was carnivorous in his habits is known from the remains of animals which are found with his own relics and which he used for food.

A peculiarity of the feet of the primitive man was "a curious offsetting of the great toe." Also, he was probably more hairy than the model at Yale would indicate; and "whether he wore clothing is a matter of considerable doubt." Mentally he may have been "at least on a par with the modern Australian savages." With regard to his antiquity, Dr. Lull, basing his figures on the most approved geological evidence, says:

Our records seem to point to a long career of upward of a hundred thousand years for this type of man. Whether any of his blood flows to-day through the veins of mankind, we are not certain. As a race he has been extinct at least fifty millenniums.

FATHER TABB AND HIS LYRICS

IN the recent passing away of Father Tabb at St. Charles' College, Ellicott City, Md., the country lost a poet of distinction, while from the ranks of the Roman Catholic priesthood there was taken a scholar and musician of unusual attainments.

John Bannister Tabb was born in Virginia sixty-five years ago. As a youth he espoused the cause of the Confederacy, and it was as a prisoner of war that he became a comrade of Sidney Lanier, that other poet of the Southland, with whom he had much in common. After the war he became a teacher and in 1872, at the age of twenty-seven, embraced the Catholic faith. After many years of study at St. Charles' College he was ordained to the priesthood. He continued as a member of the college faculty for the remainder of his life, suffering during the last two years the loss of his sight, an affliction which in his case must have been peculiarly hard to bear. In the latter half of his life many of his verses had been printed in the magazines and several volumes of his collected poems had appeared.

Writing in the *Catholic World* for February Mrs. Alice Meynell, who is especially familiar with Father Tabb's work, dwells on the artistic completeness of his poems. She also distinguishes between the "merely fanciful" and the "greatly imaginative" among his lyrics.

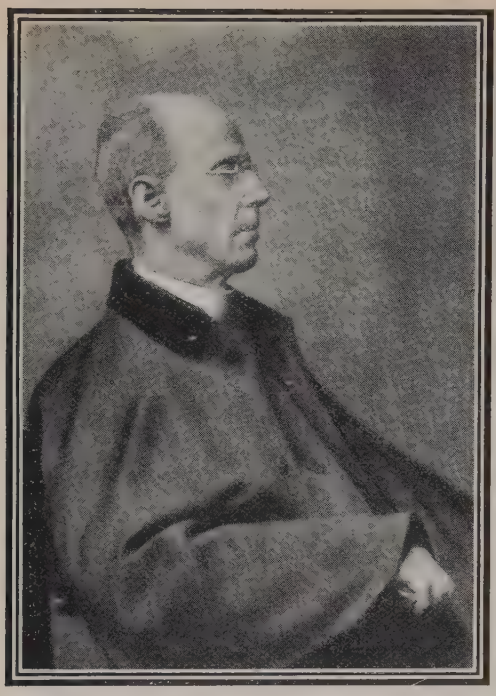
And so important, so momentous, and so significant is Father Tabb's finer imagery that it is at once the matter and the form and the substance of the poem. There is none of the indirectness of "as" or "like" or "even as" in his similitudes; he does not merely illustrate. Let us take as an example the two lovely stanzas from the second book, the *Lyrics* of 1897,—"The Young Tenor":

"I woke; the harbored melody
Had crossed the slumber bar,
And out upon the open sea
Of consciousness, afar
Swept onward with a fainter strain,
As echoing the dream again.

"So soft the silver sound, and clear,
Outpoured upon the night,
That Silence seemed a listener
O'erleaning with delight
The slender moon, a finger-tip
Upon the portal of her lip."

His contemporaries were not accustomed to think of Father Tabb as a prolific writer; yet Mrs. Meynell shows that in the truest sense his verse was voluminous,—in thought if not in printed lines:

Father Tabb has produced some hundreds of poems in a few slender volumes, and every poem harbors,—or rather is,—a separate thought, and a thought "accepted of song." This is fertility of a most unusual kind; it is not only quality in a little space but,—more remarkably,—quantity in a little space. For Father Tabb's admirable things are not merely to be weighed; they are, most emphatically, to be counted. They are many. Nay, they are so many that I doubt whether one of the voluminous poets, even the great ones, would easily make up such a sum. *Multum, non multa* has been said in praise of others. But that praise in no wise suits Father Tabb. It is for abundance that we must praise him,—the several, separate, distinct, discreet abundance of entire brief lyrics. Would a slower or longer-witted poet have made of each of these thoughts, these fancies, these images, a longer poem? I cannot tell, but I think the longer-witted one would not have had these thoughts. Father Tabb conceives them at once in their perfection; and one cannot think of them otherwise than as bearing their own true shape in his exquisitely shaped stanza.



THE LATE FATHER TABB

A writer in the *Nation,* Mr. Frank J. Mather, Jr., recalls that the texts of Father Tabb's "parables in little" were usually furnished by the singing birds, thickets, meadows, and hills of the Maryland Blue Ridge.

Except for the simpler Bible stories, there is rarely a suggestion of history. The verses are profoundly literary, yet one hardly guesses what latent influences from older poetry may have transpired. The world of struggling men and women is held far away. Occasional intimations of a love become reminiscent hardly constitute a bond. We have to do simply with the transaction between nature and a curiously meditative mind.

A few lines written by Father Tabb soon after his loss of sight are taken by the *Outlook* as autobiographic:

"Back to the primal gloom
Where life began,
As to my mother's womb
Must I, a man,
Return:
Not to be born again,
But to remain:
And in the School of Darkness learn
What mean
The things unseen."

One of Father Tabb's last poems,—"The Vampire Moon,"—appeared in the *Cosmopolitan Magazine* for February. An editorial note states that this was considered by the poet the best work he had done:

"The vital vapors to absorb,
The Moon, with famished face,
Suspends her lean, malignant orb
Above a dying face.

"I watch her like a folded flower
As silently expand;
The pulses waning hour by hour,
And heavier the hand.

"Till *she* hath brimmed her cup, and I
An empty chalice hold;
My heart in agony as dry
In wintriness, as cold."

JAPAN'S REAL REASON FOR WANTING MANCHURIA

THE action of Japan in Manchuria has given rise to so many dire apprehensions that it is useful to have a statement from a Japanese source as to what Japan really does want in that region. Although Mr. Adachi Kinnosuke frankly admits, in his article in *Harper's Weekly,* that he is "not speaking by the book,—especially an officially inspired one,"—it is impossible, reading between the lines, to doubt that he voices the views of his countrymen generally. The question he discusses is: "What does Japan want in Manchuria?"; and the first reason he gives he designates as "good, economic, commercial." He says:

We in Japan, like all poor men's families, increase persistently, enormously, without malice aforethought, to be sure, at the rate of 600,000 per year. To-day we import about three million yens' worth of rice,—just one article of food,—every month to feed our people. We have got to reach out for pastures new. Our farmers would like to come to your country. Our farmers, learned in the lore of intensive culture of the soil, would do a deal of good for some portions of your country,—Texas, for example, and the Northwest. You do not want them. Our Government (remembering always how loyally you stood by us in the time of trouble) enacted laws which made it almost impossible for the laboring class of our country to come to America. The Japanese immigration into America dwindled to one-tenth of the former number, and that was nothing but right. This is your country; you should have whom you wish. As for us, we looked elsewhere; we had to. Why not Manchuria?

It is only natural that the Japanese Gov-

ernment should prefer to see its people in Manchuria, rather than in America, for the very good reason that the former country is a field in which the Japanese may be called upon "to take an active part." But "the real agricultural Manchuria is far from the rosy Manchuria of American imagination."

Manchurian soil is not Californian; you may tickle the Manchurian mud all you wish and you stand in no immediate danger of digging a golden smile out of it. The Manchurian farm hand gets very little more than one-half of the Japanese wage. In Japan an average farm laborer gets 35 sen (17½ cents) per day. When he is told that in America he can get $1.50 per day he is tempted to brave an ocean. When he is told that he can get 20 sen (10 cents) per day in Manchuria he . . . loses all his interest in Manchuria at once. How to fire the imagination of the Japanese laboring class for the attractions in Manchuria is the problem of the day. And the South Manchurian Railway helps to solve it in no small measure. The South Manchurian has practically reconstructed itself; 80 per cent. of its line has been double-tracked now. All of which means . . . employment for the Japanese, especially for our engineers,—and at no starvation wages. . . . The South Manchurian Railway Company has been working its coal-mines,—another opportunity for the Japanese workmen. The South Manchurian line uses no modest number of men to conduct its passenger and freight business,—another good chance for some of our people.

Referring to the oft-heard statement that Japan is using the South Manchurian lines to fence out European and American trade from Manchuria, Mr. Adachi says he does not see why this impression should be abroad. As for the command of the Manchurian market,—that, he says, the Japanese "have anyhow, railways or no railways." This is how he regards the situation:

Consider how near our factories are to the Manchurian market; how far the American manufacturers; consider the cheapness of our factory labor; our command of cheap water transportation, our superior knowledge of local conditions and the needs of the Manchurians; and judge for yourself. In Manchuria we can maintain a traveling salesman for $10 a month; American and European houses cannot.

Curiously enough Mr. Adachi brings against American merchants the same charge of indifference to the needs of their Manchurian customers that has been made against United States traders with South American countries:

Our manufacturers are willing enough to send goods according to the wishes of the customers. The American manufacturer knows what is good for his customers and gives them the goods which he himself thinks best. When they have to, the merchants of Japan pack the goods suitable for the rough-and-tumble transportation conditions of inland China; the American is too busy to do anything of the sort.

MISS MANCHURIA AND HER SUITORS
(Tokio *Puck* is certain that they can never agree)

One distinct advantage that the Japanese merchant has over his American competitor is that the Manchurians can pay for their purchases from Japan in beans and kaoliang, the chief products of the country. America "does not want either of them; she cannot handle them with profit. Japan does want them; she could handle the entire output of Manchuria if she were forced to it. And this fact alone is decisive in commanding the Manchurian market."

But the real reason why Japan will not sell the Manchurian lines is not a commercial one: it is that these lines are "a vital measure of the national defense of the Empire of Nippon." Not that Japan is expecting to fight somebody,—no more than America in increasing her navy expects to fight some power or to "lick" somebody. Why the South Manchurian lines count so much with Japan is:

Because China is awakening even now, and very fast. The awakened China, with her new army and her navy, may not listen to the now fashionable talk of Japan's leadership of Asia with a smile, and we have an idea in Japan that our neighbor may not let bygones be bygones.

Now we wish to receive the first shock of the awakening of China on the Continent,—not on our own shores, but as far away as possible.

Besides China, Russia has to be reckoned with.

To-day she is subsidizing the Russian immigrants into Siberia with real money,—and that after giving them the lands to till and houses to live in. Now to face Russia when she has made herself at home in Siberia is a different tale from fighting her at the end of 6000 miles of single-track railway from home. Nippon appreciates this. The most fervent prayer of both the government and the people of Japan to-day is that the 8,000,000 gods of our forefathers keep us at peace with Russia.

Finally, Japan cannot get over the notion that Manchuria is hers because "it was ceded to her by China in 1895." Japan is "the rightful owner of southern Manchuria."

FROM ROOSEVELT TO TAFT—A GERMAN VIEW

THE initial article of a recent issue of the Berlin *Gegenwart,* by Otto Corbach, contrasts the spirit of President Taft's administration with that of its predecessor.

Many people all over the world, he says, suppose that Taft's only function is to keep Roosevelt's seat warm for him.

They believe that the people of the United States will make the beloved Teddy, the man of temperament, their standard-bearer once more in the next Presidential election, because no better leader against "predatory wealth" can be found. The experiences under the new master of the White House have not tended to change this view. The rigid adherents of Roosevelt are disappointed with Taft. In vain have they looked to him for any really bold action in the direction of a decided antagonizing of the trusts or the initiation of a policy of tariff reduction. Much rather have the advocates of the great corporations, of high protection, the Cannons, Paynes, Aldriches, cause to be satisfied with the man, of whom Roosevelt once declared, —not in these words, to be sure,—"This is my beloved son, in whom I am well pleased."

DID MR. ROOSEVELT'S MANTLE REALLY FALL ON PRESIDENT TAFT?

(This is the way the Teutonic view was pictured recently by the cartoonist of *Nebelspalter,* Zurich)

The same Roosevelt, the writer continues, left no doubt, however, before his departure for Africa that the ruling Taft was subjecting this approval to a heavy strain. He foretold in some published articles a dark future for the American people should they not pursue in the most vigorous manner the war which he had begun against the corporations. "No one doubted that these admonitions were meant for the new President, who already showed how little a passionate partisanship against the powerful monopolists was consonant with his tastes."

Then, too, there is nothing to remind one of the temperament that Roosevelt displayed in regard to his duties as President. Roosevelt's messages were combative utterances which were chiefly directed against the money-kings. Taft's messages are brief, business-like, and extremely moderate in tone. Taft is an optimist. He beholds for his people, be they employers or employed, agriculturists or manufacturers, only opportunities to increase their well-being, if each one but accommodate himself to his circumstances. That is why he preaches mutual harmony, reconciliation; for the country is "in a high state of prosperity"; there is every reason to believe "that we are on the eve of a substantial business expansion." *"Enrichissez-vous!"* that is the recipe, then, that President Taft prescribes as the universal remedy for all social exigencies. He cannot, nor does he want to, entirely abandon the task of strengthening the people's capacity of resistance against the exploiting power of the trusts. But he has not the ambition, like Roosevelt, to bring about radically subversive changes in American economic life.

Whoever imagines, however, that a great majority of the American nation, "disgusted by Taft's lukewarmness in the fight against the rich enemies of the people, are burning with eagerness to put Roosevelt into the

White House, in spite of all political tradition, after the expiration of Taft's term," is, asserts this German writer, laboring under a mistake.

He forgets to take into account that in the United States, too, great changes have in the last years taken place in internal political life; and he misconstrues in general also the character of the historical epoch through which we are passing. Modern celebrities appear and vanish like the passing fancies of fashion. In former times a man of consequence could congratulate himself if he gained the recognition of his contemporaries at the close of his life; to-day many a one sees his fame pale while he is still in the full vigor of his powers,—not to mention the innumerable lesser lights who emerge from obscurity like meteors to be once more swiftly swallowed in darkness. Roosevelt may have had moments when he regretted not being a king or emperor who might rule to the end of his days over one of the greatest of nations. But if the vapors of incense which surrounded him did not dim his critical vision too much he must surely in the last year of his Presidency have blessed a fate that allowed his second term to close opportunely and thus spare him bitter disappointment through the inconstancy of popular favor. Roosevelt's unsteady anti-trust policy had produced a disquieting effect upon the American business-world. Much legislative strength was consumed without perceptibly weakening the monopolistic power of the corporations; without, therefore, resulting in much besides a crippling of the spirit of enterprise. Doubly disastrous, consequently, were the effects caused by the great economic crisis of 1907.

For Mr. Taft, concludes Herr Corbach, the laurels of a social innovator have nothing alluring.

He reckons with the powers as they exist, unless circumstances render legislative encroachments in economic concerns absolutely necessary. All the more eagerly does he devote himself to the expansion of American trade. That is why he attaches such importance to foreign policy. Whether in consequence the psychological moment for the exercise of pressure upon "predatory wealth" may be lost troubles him but little.

HAVE AMERICA AND JAPAN ECLIPSED EUROPE?

"EUROPE'S supremacy in the world is at an end." So says the Italian Deputy Signor Enrico de Marinis. With him this idea is not new, since he has previously mooted it on the floor of Italy's lower chamber; but he now for the first time puts a synoptical review of the subject at large into print, calling his article,—see *Nuova Antologia* (Rome),—"The Decadence of Europe." And an anonymous contributor to the Berlin weekly, the *Zukunft,* shows unconcious coincidence with Signor de Marinis as to one or two points (in an article dealing chiefly with the career of E. H. Harriman).

Two factors determine this "decadence of Europe," thinks the Deputy: "The program of the United States, seconded by a policy common to the two Americas," and, next, "the historical rise of Japan." Those two great powers "are no longer jealous of Europe, which they perceive is on the decline, but are afraid and jealous of each other.

The Americas and Asia are no longer in a state of subjection to the European world; a reaction against Europe is happening. . . . America and Asia are pursuing their endeavor to lessen and destroy European dominion in the remaining colonial possessions and in the markets of both East and West. . . . The present dissensions between the countries of Europe pall before the new conflict to-day appearing in history. Europe has given up. The center of history and civilization lies elsewhere. Having rendered themselves independent of Europe politically, the Americas are now merely fighting to win economic victories, which are resulting more and more favorably for the American States, and to obtain the political supremacy of the Atlantic. At the same time Asia has commenced the struggle for political and economic independence of Europe, with intent of control in the lands and markets of the Occident,—and with victory already beginning to smile.

The first of the causes making for American ascendancy noted by Signor de Marinis is the Monroe Doctrine, aiming at the unification of the commercial interests of all the countries of this hemisphere as against the states of Europe, "a magnificent political conception of large prophetic vision." Writers may already be found both in North and South America who declare the world's financial center to be no longer London but New York.

The recently passed Payne-Aldrich tariff bill is a further "accentuation of America's so famous plan of protection against the European industries." The French and British industries will be especially hard hit. It may be, thinks the author, that this latest protectionist move will give a strong impulse to the "fair trade" idea in England, whose present belief in free trade precludes the possibility of retaliation while reducing England's export markets. Under the new tar-

iff Italian products come off very badly, too, and "one must conclude that sooner or later no European country will remain untouched by the fresh distribution of commercial and financial injuries which the United States will inflict within a short space of time." Nothing will serve here but united action on the part of the European governments. Of this, however, there seems little chance, since Europe is continuing "in the perilous path of internal political and economic quarrels." Not even the enormously significant American victory over Spain, whose results went much further than Spain's loss of Cuba and Cuba's becoming an American republic, made Europe realize that this was a step in "historical decadence" and a token of worse to come. By the Hay-Pauncefote treaty was ceded to the United States control of the future interoceanic canal, which was to have been shared by England, according to an earlier arrangement. United States importations in the Canal Zone have increased considerably, of course.

The Bureau of American Republics and the museum at Philadelphia are signs of the "pan-American" solidarity so vigorously championed by Blaine and Elihu Root,—with the 1906 conference at Rio de Janeiro as the latest manifestation, the author of this article might have added,—for the purpose of "common defense of a political and commercial union for the common interests against Europe and the Asiatic peril." English-speaking America maintains schools in Turkey, and in Beirut a university. The United States, apart from stupendous import, export, and internal trade statistics, dizzy transactions in the stock market, and a vast railway net, surpassing in mileage the whole of Europe's,—the United States, points out the deputy for Salerno, "furnishes half the world's iron and steel, two-thirds of the coal, one-third of the lead, three-fifths of the copper, over a quarter of the zinc, over a quarter of the gold, more than half of the silver, three-quarters of the cotton, and three-fifths of the petroleum." Besides, there are immense untouched natural resources in both North and South America. Military and naval armament is increasing with the Latin commonwealths as well as with the English-speaking republic, and the United States fleet "will one day be the strongest in the world."

The above is partly corroborated in the *Zukunft:*

> The American desires for expansion are concentrated upon Eastern Asia and South America . . . and they get very indignant if told that Germany has designs in Brazil. . . . The new American protective tariff, with its arbitrariness and its possibilities of interpretation, is bad,—even worse than one had expected it would be: But only a united,—as yet non-existent,—Europe could effect anything by way of opposition. And as long as England, which opens its doors to American products without the slightest sort of restriction, feels obliged to swallow such a tariff it must remain almost unassailable for Germany. . . . For the United States need not mind us very particularly and are in the enviable position of being able to annoy us without any risk. Any one can see that who, instead of staring at the stock market, considers the economic state of the two countries.

As to the second part of the Italian statesman's thesis, the rise of Asia,—with Japan as protagonist,—his remarks may be briefly summed up as follows:

"Asia for the Asiatics" is a watchword we are now all familiar with. The English have special reason to be interested in Asiatic developments, as they made an alliance with Japan, and during the war with Russia hailed the victories of the little yellow men with great enthusiasm. But is it not significant that only a couple of years after that war the English were anxiously trying to arrive at an understanding with Russia about the future policy to be adopted by those two European powers concerning their Asiatic possessions? Japan's victory in fact completely changed the attitude of Europe toward Asia, "Europe at once beginning to renounce its program of expansion in the Far East," this being notably the case with Russia, Germany, France, and Italy. But even before the stupendous defeat of Russia,—tantamount to that of Europe,—French publicists were writing about the Japanese peril in Indo-China. "The best intellects of the East see this sudden and frightened change of program . . . . in its full light as a sign of European decadence." China is undergoing an actual renascence and is rapidly becoming emancipated. India is in a state of growing revolt. The Persian constitutionalists were strong enough to overthrow the Shah, and they aim at political independence for their country. Afghanistan has not the least intention of relegating itself to the rôle of either a British or a Russian protectorate. Korea now lies altogether under Japanese domination and administration; the Japanese are the political and commercial masters of that country. Their influence, too, in Siam is enormous; in late operations on the French border line the

Siamese troops were commanded by Japanese.

Signor de Marinis does not opine that Europe's "decadence" can be turned back to dominance, but he thinks the tide could be stemmed at least by the organization of the "United States of Europe," which he considers "vital to their existence as a common defense of common fundamental interests . . . against the advance of the Americas and the progress of Asia."

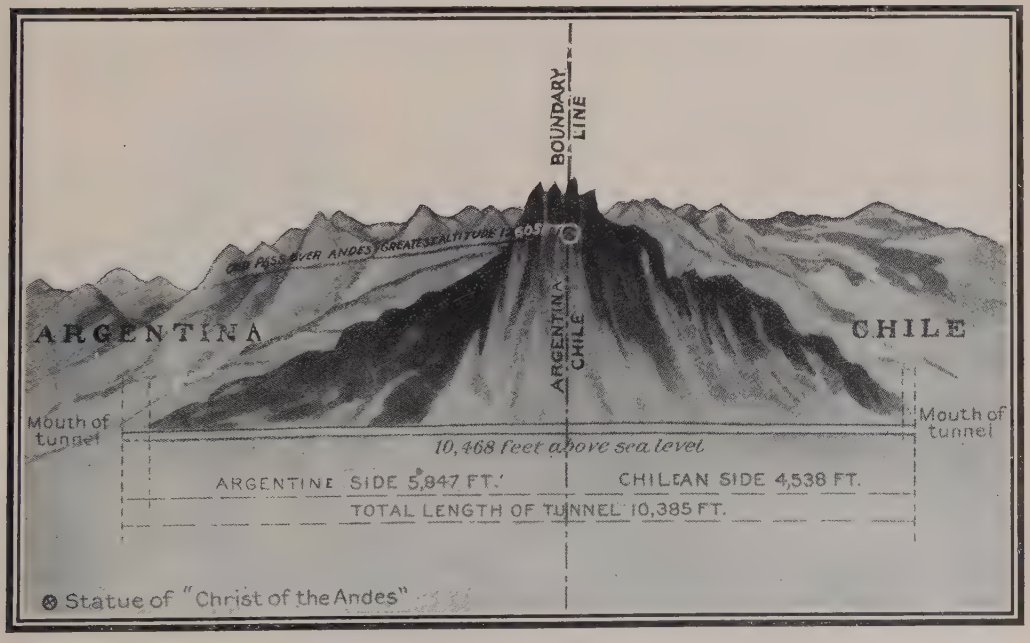
THE INTERNATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ANDEAN TUNNEL

AN achievement more potent than treaties or monuments in making for peace and harmony between the peoples of Chile and Argentina was announced to the world in November last, when the tunnel working forces of the Trans-Andean Railroad builders met in the heart of the mountains at the mathematical boundary separating the two countries.

This tunnel has often been referred to as the highest in the world. Its altitude is higher than that of any other tunnel of equal or greater length. The famous Galera Tunnel, on the Oroya road in Peru, is higher, but it is only about one-third as long as the bore completing the railroad line between Chile and Argentina. The latter, which is 10,468 feet above the sea level, has a total length of 10,385 feet.

Hollowed out of solid rock, the tunnel as opened is 3000 feet below the crest of the Andes. It is of the same dimensions as the famous Simplon Tunnel and large enough to allow rolling-stock of the standard gauge to pass through. It is expected that by May 25 of the present year trains will be running through. This will make a most appropriate feature in the celebration of the centenary of the revolution which gave to both these South American nations their independent life.

It was an Italian workman, operating under a British engineer, in the employ of an Anglo-American firm, and thus complet-



PROFILE OF THE TRANS-ANDEAN TUNNEL RECENTLY OPENED BETWEEN CHILE AND THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

(Although only about two miles long and surpassed in this respect by others in various parts of the world, It is unique in that no tunnel of as great a length is situated at so great a height above the level of the sea)

ing the project of two Chilean brothers (we quote from the February number of the *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics) who placed the fuse "for the demolition of the rocky barrier and opened up a line of communication which is likely to change political relations in South America and commercial conditions throughout the world."

Commenting upon the international significance of this achievement, and noting the fact that the tunnel reduces the running time between Valparaiso and Buenos Aires from nearly four days to thirty-four hours, the editor of the *Bulletin* says:

So long as the chief exports of the countries interested continue to be raw materials no great changes may be expected in the character of products transported to the seaboard, though the volume will inevitably be greatly augmented. Argentine grains, hides, and beef, and Chilean copper and nitrates, will continue to be sent abroad by the sea, but in the development of a greater commercial volume between the countries of the east and west coasts of South America and in the transport of lighter manufactured goods from Europe and America the rail route will prove a formidable rival. Though Brazil and the Argentine Republic are washed by the Atlantic, vast tracts of rubber-growing districts of the one and of the agricultural and cattle sections of the other lie far nearer to the Pacific. With facilities of transport it is reasonable to suppose that products which have hitherto found their sole ports of shipment on the Atlantic seaboard will ultimately turn to the Pacific, and vice versa. As a medium of ocean traffic the importance of the route cannot be overestimated. At present South America is to a great extent a commercial appanage of Europe. On the east coast the trade of the United States with the countries of the Atlantic has been handicapped by inadequate shipping, and also by the fact that the east coast to the south of the turn of the continent is really much nearer to Europe than to the United States with the added advantage of more favorable sailing conditions, and the west coast is as remote by sea from New York as it is from Liverpool or Hamburg. When the Panama Canal is completed a different condition will prevail. Then the United States, especially its manufacturing sections, will enjoy a tremendous advantage in respect to all that portion of South America situated on or commercially tributary to the Pacific. Already the opening of the Tehuantepec line across Mexico and of the interoceanic route in Guatemala has augmented the volume of trade between the Atlantic and Pacific. With the Buenos Aires-Valparaiso route open to easy transport, Chile and Peru will no longer be cut off from the great streams of the world's commerce. They will be in direct and constant intercourse with the countries to the east and will be brought proportionately close to Europe, and a long step will be taken toward South American solidarity by bringing the capitals of the west coast under the same influences as those of the east.

FAIR PLAY FOR CHINA IN THE RAILROAD QUESTION

IN the *Far Eastern Review* for November last George Bronson Rea, M.E., has a few things to say concerning railway loan agreements in China and their relation to the Open Door which are well worth reading. In the development of the Middle Kingdom the interval that has elapsed since 1898 has been an epoch-making period, pregnant with the most important issues for the future of that vast country. Twelve years ago China was a mere child in the hands of promoters and concessionists; to-day she is asserting her national dignity and demanding fair play at the hands of the Powers. Twelve years ago China had to admit the incompetence and dishonesty of her native railway officials; to-day she can point to at least one line,—the Peking-Kalgan, 130 miles in length,—"constructed entirely with Chinese money, and by Chinese engineers, there being not a single foreigner employed on the line in any capacity." Mr. Rea says:

On the 17th day of June, 1898, when China contracted her foreign loan for the Peking-Newchwang line, she voluntarily admitted the principle that her officials were incompetent to honestly administer the proceeds of a foreign loan to the satisfaction of the investor. And having once placed her financial probity in question she has been forced through successive similar agreements to follow a practice which no other nation in the world would tolerate for an instant. . . . While China could give ample security and pay good interest she could not be trusted with the expenditure of the money. And under the provisions of loan agreements based on these principles China has been deprived of authority in her own affairs, and the national, commercial, and political interests of money-lenders advanced without coming into direct conflict with the Open Door doctrine.

This Peking-Newchwang loan was for £2,300,000 for a term of forty-five years; and China entered into an agreement with the British & Chinese Corporation which practically gave them control of the property. It also "inserted a wedge for British railway

principles which, if driven home, would effectively destroy the chance of American or Continental railway supplies gaining a foothold in China." The chief engineer was to be a British subject, and the principal members of the railway staff were also to be Europeans. The accountant of the line was to be European as well. Naturally Russia objected to the "foreign control of the line," but the objection was withdrawn after an understanding had been arrived at with regard to the respective spheres of railway influence of Great Britain and Russia. The line was so successful that a dividend of 18 per cent. was paid in 1908; and out of the surplus profits the new Kalgan line was constructed (as stated above, entirely by Chinese) at a cost of over £1,100,000, or half the value of the loan. It was natural that "under these circumstances the Chinese should chafe under the yoke which forced them to acknowledge the chief engineer as the dominant factor in the road." As was to be expected, British railway principles largely prevail on the Imperial railways. Large engineering works were erected at Shanhikwan, justifying the conclusion that the corporation aimed at "a monopoly of road and bridge construction throughout the empire."

BUILDER OF THE KALGAN RAILWAY, THE MOST DIFFICULT ENGINEERING TASK IN CHINA

(His Excellency, the Taotai Chan Tien-Yu, C. E., M. I. C. E., a graduate of Yale, known familiarly to his associates at the university as "Jimmy")

HSU SHIH-CHANG, PRESIDENT OF THE CHINESE BOARD OF POSTS AND COMMUNICATIONS

(This official has filled many important governmental posts, including those of Grand Councillor, President of the Board of Interior, Viceroy of Manchuria, and Director-General of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway. He is now at Peking as the head of the Imperial Railway Board. He is regarded as one of China's most capable and honest executives)

With engineers in charge specifying standards and following bridge principles prevailing in Great Britain, the logical end meant the monopolization of the Chinese market for British steel manufacturers.

The Peking-Hankow loan of £4,500,000 at 4 per cent., placed through Belgian financiers, was much more favorable to China than the Peking-Newchwang one. China secured the option of redeeming the entire loan after ten years. Though only Belgian or French products were purchased, and the Belgian chief engineer drew up the plans, complete harmony existed during the construction of the line. When the time came China exercised her rights, replaced the Belgian officials with her own men, and is now controlling the property free from any restrictions or interference.

The Shanghai-Nanking loan of 1903, for £3,250,000 at 5 per cent., was for fifty years, repayable at 102½ after twelve and one-half years and at par after twenty-five years. The engineer-in-chief was appointed by the British & Chinese Corporation, and he had practical control over disbursements.

Only favored British manufacturers were permitted to tender for supplies, and only British material was recommended and purchased. . . . Only the most approved materials found their way into the make-up of the road. . . . It is undoubtedly the best equipped road in China and a standing object-lesson of British railway principles adapted to Chinese requirements.

The Chinese, however, charge extravagance and unnecessary expenditure on the part of the engineer-in-chief. The corporation, "placed in an unpleasant light, answers that while the road has cost more than any other in China, due to the superior quality of the construction and material, the total would have been greatly reduced had it not been for the many 'combines' among the Chinese officials to raise the prices for land and ballast."

After citing several other loans Mr. Rea gives details as to the cost of some of the more important railways in China, which in brief are as follows:

The most expensive loan-built railway in China, the Shanghai-Nanking, cost $53,000 per mile. The American-built Shamshui branch of the Canton-Hankow line was the most costly to China: alleged extravagance prevailed in the ordering of materials, and everything was purchased from America; so Americans cannot hope to stand on a pedestal and lay claim to any superior virtues. The German-built Shantung line cost $46,000 gold per mile. The most difficult engineering railway proposition was the road from Peking to Kalgan mentioned above, which included over a mile of tunneling, and whose engines are the most powerful in China. This cost only about $41,000 per mile.

As Mr. Rea remarks, these figures speak for themselves.

They tell the story that China is forced to expend much more for her foreign-built roads under the restricting terms of loan agreements than she would if left untrammeled in the supervision and control of expenditures. . . . China could more than double her railway building if unmolested in the administration of her affairs.

To quote Mr. Rea further:

China's credit is good. Her finances need reorganizing, and it will come in time. Her bonds are eagerly accepted by the investing public. . . . If international protestations of friendship to China are sincere and there exists a genuine desire to maintain the open door and further foreign trade relations, every country should subscribe to the doctrine of permitting China exclusive control of her loan funds for railway purposes. . . . It is time China was accorded fair play.

THE NEW JUNGLE RAILROAD OF SOUTH AMERICA

THE most fascinating river in all the world, excepting perhaps the Nile, is the mighty Amazon, draining two and a half million square miles of South America. But whereas the attractions of the river of Egypt lie in survivals of a historic past,—with all the associations that gather round its temples and other monuments of bygone greatness, of the rise and fall of empires,—the charm of the South American waterway is its very youth, its boundless stretches of virgin territory, its enormous fertile areas awaiting cultivation. A thousand miles from the Atlantic the Madeira River empties into the Amazon, after having flowed 900 miles from its source at the junction of the Beni and Mamoré rivers, on the frontier of Bolivia and Brazil. The area drained by the Madeira and its affluents nearly equals that of the State of Texas, to which must be added thousands of square miles of contiguous territory in eastern Bolivia, Peru, and Brazil, all of which have their only outlet through the Madeira and Mamoré. The practically limitless wealth-producing power of this vast region is thus described in the *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics:

This is the heart of South America. It is destined to make the names of Bolivia, Peru, and Brazil well known in the consuming markets of the world long after the tin of the first, the copper of the second, and the diamonds of the third are forgotten. The mineral wealth of all three republics may become exhausted, but the agricultural resources will increase as time goes on, and as the land becomes more accessible. In the areas contiguous to the great rivers, such as the Madeira, the present products are rubber and cacao. . . . But the resources of the heart of South America will not be exhausted by these two aids to modern life. Above the level of the river valleys lie areas of equal richness and fertility. Subtropical products, such as cinchona and the citrus trees, grow there; coffee, cotton, and sugar have no better soil; cattle can find an open pasture all the year round. Still higher on the mountainside . . . are fertile valleys destined some day to be granaries contributing in corn and wheat to the world's food supply.

To-day, for want of a railway, "the en-

TERRITORY CEDED BY BOLIVIA TO BRAZIL BY THE TREATY OF 1868
TERRITORY CEDED BY BOLIVIA TO BRAZIL BY THE TREATY OF NOVEMBER 1903
THE BOUNDARY LINE AS CLAIMED BY PERU
THE BOUNDARY LINE AS CLAIMED BY BOLIVIA
BRAZIL
PERU
BOLIVIA
MADEIRA RIVER
CUZCO
LAKE TITICACA

THE VAST REGION TAPPED BY THE NEW JUNGLE RAILROAD OF SOUTH AMERICA

(This map shows the sections of Brazil, Bolivia, and Peru drained by the Madeira River, and indicates the boundaries claimed by Bolivia and Peru in the recent dispute between these two countries)

tire area is as commercially unapproachable as it was one hundred years ago."

The Madeira River is navigable, even for ocean-going vessels, as far as San Antonio, 660 miles above its junction with the Amazon, but beyond that point for a distance of 200 miles to the mouth of the Mamoré River it is a series of rapids and falls of such stupendous force that no device of man can be conceived to carry exports or imports on the river itself to a point above the dangerous water where steam navigation is again available. Canals have been projected, but the idea has been discarded as impracticable; schemes of roads or of tracks for vessels have been conceived only to be abandoned. These rapids must in some way be passed, . . . and the only solution of the problem is the railway.

The Madeira and Mamoré Railway is no new project. As long ago as 1851 the nineteen falls and rapids of the Madeira and Mamoré rivers were reported by a United States naval officer as "the sole obstacle to continuous river navigation from the Atlantic Ocean to Vinchuta in Bolivia, a distance of 2300 miles." On November 1, 1871, Col. George Earl Church at San Antonio "turned the first sod for a railway that, with the faith of a Columbus, he firmly believed would open to commerce and immigration a country unsurpassed in latent wealth by any unoccupied territory of equal extent on the face of the globe."

The undertaking was doomed to disaster. Unforeseen difficulties "swamped the enterprise before construction had proceeded beyond the preparation of plans and a few miles of survey." In 1878 "work was carried on faithfully for one year," with the result that "a survey of 320 miles had been cut through the forest, a train run on completed tracks for 4 miles, and the right of way established by clearing for 25 miles." Then the project failed again "from a variety of causes." To-day the railway is almost an accomplished fact. American engineers have taken up the work where it was abandoned by their confrères a generation ago. Modern science (with its branches of hygiene and therapeutics), including the application of electricity, has expedited the work marvelously. In 1878 the working force never exceeded 1000 men at any one time. To-day 2500 are engaged. In 1878 the operating outfit consisted of one locomotive with one platform car. To-day the railway has been built a distance of 46 miles; five first-class engines are running, and six more are on the way. Thirty years ago the mortality among the workmen was 23 per cent. To-day the rec-

ord of deaths stands at four white men during the past two years. Almost all of the line beyond the 46 miles on which trains are running is graded.

Much has been said and written about the wonders and possibilities of the Cape to Cairo railroad, with its total length of 5700 miles, of which over 4200 have been completed. That portion of the Pan-American Railway limited to South America measures almost exactly the same distance from Panama to Buenos Aires. Comparing these vast lines with the little 200-mile road from the Madeira to the Mamoré, the *Bulletin* predicts that "this seemingly obscure railway in the jungle will ultimately carry on its roadbed more traffic and do more to develop an area almost boundles in extent and potentialities than the 10,000 miles of Cape to Cairo and Pan-American together."

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF WOMAN IN MODERN SOCIETY

IN the *Rassegna Nazionale,* one of the most sedate Italian reviews, Signor Mazzei discusses in a very frank manner, going straight to the point, the question of woman's influence in the society of to-day all over the world. He opposes all those radicals who consider woman as a being apart, without taking into account her inevitable duties toward the family and society in general. Evidently he believes that if man has, besides his family duties, a social mission which he cannot avoid, woman, too, has been assigned by nature to her social obligations, and she likewise cannot escape them. He says:

Many have seen in the different conditions of men and women an injustice because they have only studied one side of the woman question without taking into consideration the children, who also have a right to be well brought up and educated. These observers do not seem to realize that if we neglect our children the logical consequence of the mistake is that the coming generations will try to render the woman in all respects equal to man, enjoying the same rights and having the same duties. In the abstract all this appears equitable, but if we go to the root of the question we can easily see that the results are disastrous. If nature made woman equal to man for her nobility she also made woman unlike him in her aptitudes as well as dissimilar in her attributes. Therefore, all this tends to the conclusion that there should be a diversity in the mission of each sex.

Signor Mazzei observes that to-day the family, especially among the working classes all over the world, is in a bad condition, that it has lost its physical strength and has been reduced to a level below that which it was intended to maintain for the good of society. This is due to the fact that the family "no longer desires to assume its responsibilities toward the different affinities which compose 'society.'"

In fact, man is now only thinking of himself and the woman is rapidly following in his footsteps, with her infatuation of wanting "to make money" or to prove her "equal rights." Who are suffering by all this? The children, who are not responsible and consequently are unwittingly the victims of a false environment.

It is truism that woman is the soul of the family. She is the necessary center from whom everything emanates and often her devotion averts many misfortunes.

If the woman abandons her home, who will bring up and guide the children? What satisfaction can a man find in his home life without a woman? He will seek pleasure outside and the children will frequent the streets, where they will meet bad companions, and even the strongest will be tempted into the ways of corruption. . . . At every age man feels the materialistic influence of his opposite sex. As a child he not only receives nourishment from his mother but her example and advice do as much to shape his character as her first instruction does his education. When a young man, the woman, whom he loves will ennoble him, or make him a coward. Later, when a husband, it will be the wife who will, with her kindness, encourage him to remain honest, broaden his moral scope, and stimulate his ambitions. It is beyond dispute that women have always had a vast power for good or evil over mankind.

If a woman is alone in the world and has to earn her living, this Italian writer concludes, she should then work, yet choose an employment or career best adaptable to her sex, as, for example, teaching, especially in the elementary schools. "But if instead she does not need to earn her livelihood she should occupy herself toward the good of society. Her gentleness and kindness make her indeed superior to man. She should teach hygiene, give advice and bring joy to the poorer classes. It seems to me that her mission would be thus complete."

FINANCE AND BUSINESS

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH

THE RED-FLANNEL SAVINGS BANK

ONE day last month a hard-working woman, the wife of a New York tailor in a small way, went out to market. In her hurry she left the apartment door ajar. Moreover, she forgot to replace, under the mattress, the red-flannel bag in which she and her husband kept their savings of fifteen years,—some diamonds, a gold watch, and $1400 cash.

Only a quarter of an hour later she came back,—but the red-flannel savings bank was gone. At last reports, the police detectives had not recovered the money.

The pity of such a loss is more than personal. It is a national calamity. The vague distrust of all banks follows the popular ignorance of the difference in nature between a business man's bank and a true savings bank. Ignorance was the root of this small tragedy, and it is also the root of the national phenomenon of extravagance, now in wide notice of the newspapers.

Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow the bank may fail,—that reckless spirit of rich and poor is one cause of the Congressional investigations into the high cost of living.

Several other legislative bodies are likewise getting evidence on the relation between American wages and the higher cost of eggs, and meat, and milk, and so on, and of tariff-protected manufactures.

Meanwhile the good old maxim holds true, that the real prosperity of a nation is the citizen's margin for saving. As long as stories like the above continue to be typical, in the experience of financial editors and bankers, it will continue a leading duty of the public-spirited to learn where sums like that $1400 can be placed with profit and safety.

THE TRUE SAVINGS BANK

IT would have meant the difference of fifteen years' work to the unlucky tailor if he had understood that he was living in the very center of true savings banks,—the kind that, humanly speaking, make no "inside profits," take no risks, and do not fail.

Such savings banks are called "mutual." There are about 640 of them in the United States. In them is deposited more than $3,100,000,000,—of which nearly one-third is in the savings banks of New York City and Brooklyn alone.

Half as much again is in ten other cities,—Boston, Albany, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Baltimore, Cleveland, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, St. Paul, and San Francisco.

"Mutual" here means co-operative. For instance, out of every $10 the New York savings banks earned last year the depositors got more than $9. Compare the interest your local bank pays its depositors with the dividends its stockholders get.

In mutual savings banks there are no stockholders. Supervision is by trustees who serve without pay. The depositors' money may legally be put only into gilt-edge first mortgages on real estate, railroad bonds, and the like.

Interest paid varied last year from 3½ to 4 per cent. The average was 3.85.

Country dwellers, outside of New York, New Jersey, and New England, will find few mutual savings banks at hand. Indeed, they will find few savings banks of any kind. Even if one includes the 1061 "stock" savings banks, which are operated for the profit of the shareholders, like any other private business enterprise, the number of institutions is utterly inadequate in some sections. Here are the figures for a few States, comprising stock banks and mutual banks, too,—1703 in all:

Delaware	2
Florida	4
Arkansas	6
Indiana	5
Wisconsin	3
Montana	3
Wyoming	1
Oregon	6
Idaho	4
Utah	3

That shows why only one American savings bank deposit in every five is outside New England and the six "Eastern" States.

And in half a dozen States there are no savings banks at all.

A UNITED STATES SAVINGS BANK?

ADD to the scarcity of savings banks throughout great sections of the United States,—the entire absence of any banks whatever in 22,000 villages, towns, and cities,—and a void appears, to fill which a postal savings bank has been recommended by the Republican party. It is being urged by the present Administration.

Excepting Germany, America is now the only great country without a postal savings bank. No less than thirty-four nations have such systems, in which $2,000,000,000 have been deposited by 40,000,000 thrifty citizens.

The hot contest in the Senate last month, over Senator Carter's bill, brought out a lot of information, personally and financially valuable.

Bankers don't like the plan, even if the Government is to pay only 2 per cent. interest, is to limit single deposits to $500, and is to act mostly as collecting agent, returning every dollar possible to some bank of the locality where that dollar was saved.

Half a million circulars were sent out early in February by the American Bankers' Association. They foretold trouble if the bill were passed,—dangers of robbers in the case of remote post-offices, expenses in installing 40,000 burglar-proof safes, opportunities for theft among thousands of extra clerks, new openings for the shifty debtor to evade his creditors and the tax collector, since a postal savings deposit could not be subject to attachment or to tax.

Perhaps the framers of the bill can meet these objections. They have already met others, which at first sounded serious.

For example: The first idea was that money handed in at a given office should find its way back again to the nearest National bank. But National banks are not allowed to lend money on real estate. Therefore State banks were added to the classes of Government depositaries for these postal funds.

Thus the plan would work the transformation of millions of hoarded money into capital,—money that works and serves the people.

From the red-flannel bag, or the legendary stocking, or the hole under the loose hearth-brick, the dollars will flow to the local postmaster behind whom stands the majestic "Government guarantee,"—from him to Washington, and thence back to the banks nearest the original savers.

These banks will then proceed to lend the money, receiving as security perhaps a mortgage on the very house of the loose hearth-brick, or the promissory note of the very merchant who sold the red flannel or the stocking.

WHAT A "SAVINGS DEPARTMENT" MAY MEAN

"WE have no savings banks in our neighborhood, but there is a National bank, a State bank, and a trust company,—and each has a 'savings department.' Isn't that good enough?"

The Middle-Westerner who wrote thus last month was confused, and naturally. Was his money any safer if put in at the third window on the left, where the sign read "Savings Department," than it would be at the second window on the right, for commercial deposits?

The answer is not found in the publicity matter of the American Bankers' Association, although it emphasizes departments as evidence that postal savings banks are not needed.

For every savings *bank* in the United States there are nearly ten savings *departments*. The money saved through the latter adds about one and three-quarter billions to the nearly four billions saved through the former.

But,—is money in the savings department of a business man's bank (a State bank or trust company) any safer than in any other department? The answer is No, with the exception of eight States,—Michigan, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Ohio, Texas, and California.

These States have protected the wage-earner, who saves dollar by dollar, through laws which require "savings department" money to be invested quite differently from the business man's money, which, of course, is usually loaned out again to other business men.

"Segregation" is insisted upon. Savings deposits must be invested by the bank only in certain mortgages, bonds, and loans. Should the bank get into trouble, then those savings remain secured by these investments which may not legally be used for any other purpose. If they are insufficient, then the savings depositor can put in his claim against the general assets of the bank, just like any other depositor.

That a postal savings bank would be more

trouble than it is worth is debatable. But if the postal savings bank bill is held up through the opposition of the American Bankers' Association, a much heavier responsibility will rest upon that body in its efforts, already undertaken, to secure laws in all States similar to those of the eight named,—laws which will render the word "savings" used in connection with any department of any institution, anywhere in the United States, equal to the words "trust funds," as they have been interpreted by the courts of the most conservative States.

SAVINGS IN THE NATIONAL BANKS

LAST month the biggest of all banks that hold a federal charter, the "National City," of New York, reported in its circular a matter of great moment. "There is practically not a National bank in all the United States at the present time whose condition is regarded as unsatisfactory."

Now about half of these 7000 banks have "savings departments." More than $375,000,000 is thus held. But unless the banker in the case is philanthropic by choice no one of these 3515 savings-banks-within-national-banks is treating these hardly accumulated dollars any differently from its regular commercial deposits.

Thus, from the salary- and wage-earner's point of view, it is not enough to hear that the National banks have improved greatly over a year ago, when several hundred were said to be improperly managed,—or that we owe the change to highly efficient supervision from Washington, such as the new Credit Bureau, which keeps tabs on the big borrowers, and the new co-operation of the National Examiners with the State and Clearing House Examiners.

All this executive efficiency cannot affect the law which now forbids National banks from lending on real estate mortgages. These are the foundation of investment of trust funds and of savings. For instance, the best State laws for savings banks prescribe about two-thirds of real estate mortgages to one-third of more quickly salable things, such as gilt-edge railroad bonds.

A change in the law has been recommended by the American Bankers' Association. It is before the National Monetary Commission.

Until, therefore, State and federal laws recognize the difference between trading money and savings, between business funds and the slow dollars that mean the self-denial of the clerk and the mechanic, the milliner and the housemaid,—every "savings department" will present a personal problem.

A bank can be no safer than the character of its assets, which in turn are determined by the character of the two or three men who really manage that bank.

MINUS A BILLION DOLLARS

"AWFUL crash in the stock market!" Day after day, as January closed and February began, the little newsboys called this out as they scurried around with their "early afternoon editions."

By the second week of February the newspapers were figuring out that sixty typical properties were "worth" one billion less than a few months before.

We were to have a panic, declared Mr. James M. Beck, the renowned corporation lawyer, compared to which the so-called "Roosevelt panic" would be a mere zephyr.

At such signs and portents the great body of citizens of these United States have been marveling. They "want to know,"—even though they have not been buying stocks at inflated prices,—though they are in the class of representative men and women from every section who have written to this magazine, comprehending and approving the simple rule of caution for investors indicated so often during the last few months in these pages,—*to divide the dividend by the purchase price.*

For instance: The New York Central is a great and gilt-edged railroad, but its stock pays only $5 per share a year. Plainly, the investor who has access to a safe 4 per cent. savings bank ceases to be interested in "Central" when it rises above $125 a share.

Last fall this stock reached $147. From this eminence it dropped some $30,—and thereby again become worthy of consideration by people with money to invest, not speculate with.

Yet the reappearance of "Wall Street" in newspaper headlines has aroused keen interest.

What caused the slump?

What part did speculation play?

Will there be another panic,—another twinge of the money hunger that gives pain to the nation at large?

And what remedies are our currency reformers preparing?

HOW THE BRAKES WORKED

LONDON, October 21.—The Bank of England to-day raised its minimum rate of discount from 4 per cent. to 5.

THAT brief announcement arrived just in time to be printed in these columns for November, 1909. Attention was called to the probability that before "very many months" the explanation of the news would arrive and would be unpleasant.

It appeared that an abnormal amount of millions had been borrowed in London by American bankers and speculators, to help push up the price of American stocks. The governors of the Bank of England are really world bankers. They see far. When they put the price for their money, which means for world money, up to 5 per cent. from 4, whither it had only recently been raised from 2½, gold began to flow into England, and away from American stocks. American stocks began to flow back to America.

"We can do our own financing without London's help," a banking leader irritably declared.

But figures speak louder than words. The big New York banks that lend millions on stocks from day to day began to show swelling in that "loan" item. Enormous loans, too, were shifted to out-of-town banks, anxious to profit by the high "call money," which reached 14 per cent.

In the November article already referred to, it was said that the price of stocks of certain large industries particularly had discounted and anticipated a whole lot of prosperity that had not yet arrived.

By last month the shares in the profits of the great Steel Corporation had been marked down nearly $90,000,000; of Amalgamated Copper, about $32,000,000; of American Sugar, about $8,000,000, and so on in proportion.

And on the tenth the Bank of England rate came down again to 3 per cent.

THE STOCK EXCHANGE SPEAKS

ON February 9 the rights of the American public were recognized by the New York Stock Exchange in a manner unprecedented since its first constitution in 1817. It furnished the newspapers with the detailed report of an "investigation," instead of merely summarizing its conclusion from evidence kept secret.

The interest to the nation sweeps far beyond the scandal being investigated. That concerned no more than a brokers' dispute. A little known stock, of little worth,—Columbus & Hocking Coal & Iron,—had sold in one day from $88.50 a share down to $25. Three firms of brokers failed. Who was responsible?

Nobody cares, speaking for the nation, as to the losses of gentlemen who make "pools," who abuse the machinery of the Stock Exchange to simulate the buying of obscure stocks at several times their value,—and then fail to shift this stock to outside investors at high prices before the banks learn the truth and refuse to lend the money needed to keep those high prices going.

But everybody cares, whether investor, business man, or employee, to have the facts of such harmful speculation made public as a warning.

Yet the evil will not cure itself until the Exchange governors become "active in *preventing* wrong-doing," as they were "expected" to become last June, by the "Hughes" investigating committee, which added to this report:

"If, however, wrong-doing recurs, and it should appear to the public at large that the Exchange has been derelict in exerting its powers and authority to prevent it, we believe that the public will insist upon the incorporation of the Exchange and its subjection to State authority and supervision."

Improvement seems probable. Such recent scandals as the Hocking collapse, together with the previous insane rise and fall within twelve minutes of $31 per share in the price of another stock, indefinite in value,—Rock Island common,—will not bear repetition. There is wider newspaper and magazine protest, and it is more universally read and understood by all classes.

NO PANIC FOR THE PRESENT

PANIC prophets were busy last month while stocks were falling in price. Yet those anxious merchants and investors who dug down to underlying facts found them pretty solid.

Far different was it three years ago, when the American financier, Jacob H. Schiff, with the brilliant French economist, Leroy-Beaulieu, predicted the trouble of 1907 with such extraordinary accuracy.

For instance, just preceding the 1907 decline in everything, the representative American banks had loaned, against every $100 that the public had deposited in them, no less than $106. At the present time they

are loaning only $98. They are on the safe side.

Again: In the autumn of 1906 the banks, against every $100 of loans (represented by pieces of paper bearing business men's signatures, often without "quick" security), could show "specie,"—gold and silver,—only to the amount of $16. Now they can show more than $22.

Then there was reckless endless-chaining of banks by speculators like Morse, Heinze, and Thomas. It is not believed that any group as daring has yet taken the place of those eliminated figures.

Business is not going as fast. By that very fact there is less drain on credit; nor has slackening yet reached a point where careful students can foresee any lowering of the present dividends paid by the strong railroads and manufacturing companies.

WANTED: A WAY TO GET MONEY WHEN IT IS NEEDED

MR. LESLIE M. SHAW'S home is in Iowa. About banking matters he feels as his lifetime neighbors do, though he himself, after being Secretary of the Treasury, is now a banker in a financial center of the East.

Mr. Edward B. Vreeland, on the other hand, is a Congressman from New York, and as chairman of the House Committee on Banking and Currency he represents that body's understood wish for a more centralized banking system as the cure for all our financial ills.

Consequently many sparks flew, casting much light on both sides of the "Central Bank" question, when Messrs. Vreeland and Shaw got into an impromptu debate before the Republican Club of New York on the 5th of last month.

Our system of 24,000 separate and distinct State and National banks simply "falls apart," Mr. Vreeland remarked, when under stress. Every great commercial nation abroad is united as to the reserves its banks hold and the notes they are allowed to issue. Why not adapt the principles that others have found so successful?

Because, Mr. Shaw replied, we are too big. To give our currency enough elasticity would take an unprecedented note issue. Our double line of banks,—State and National,—would complicate its handling.

Dramatic was Mr. Vreeland's illustration of the absurd American "reserve system." All the National and State laws require a certain percentage of cash to be kept in the banks. In time of panic it cannot be released.

"We are in the position in which the country would be if war were declared with Canada and *every State were required to keep its troops upon its own frontier,* where they could be cut to pieces, a few at a time, by an invading army. We must therefore have to some extent centralization of reserves, $200,000,000 to $400,000,000, where they can be used when occasion requires." Hence the cry for a commanding-general bank, able to throw reserves to any outpost where they would do the most good.

But this ability would be abused, insisted Mr. Shaw, thus voicing the "interior's" deep suspicion of any large collection of money in any one place, particularly if that place is New York.

The wheat coming into Minneapolis, the cotton into New Orleans, creates a demand for money. The local bank would send its "paper" to New York for discount. Would it get the money? Mr. Shaw thinks not, because this nation is too "provincial."

A little farther on, however, Mr. Shaw mentioned that in his own town there is a private bank, a State bank, and a National bank. In 1907 each had money in New York and Chicago, but knew it could get nothing but Clearing House certificates.

"So," related Mr. Shaw, "we decided to stand together and pool our surplus cash for the benefit of all, and then we adjourned and went home."

Then, one may ask, one's neighbor in Iowa may be trusted, but not one's central banker in New York? It is precisely this standing together and "pooling" surplus cash that a central bank signifies in every civilized nation,—except the United States.

How they do it abroad is recorded in the works of Conant, Muhleman, and others. To the many students of those works among business men, bankers, investors, and all-around good citizens the Shaw-Vreeland "debate," as reported in the New York papers of February 6, is recommended.

For it is "childish," as remarked last month by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, the political economist of Columbia University, to expect that the "local" banking machine still retained by America can keep up with the complex problems that grow out of our importance to-day in world-finance.

W. J. LOCKE, AN APOSTLE OF CHEERFULNESS IN FICTION

BY G. W. HARRIS

AFTER fifteen years of painstaking work Mr. W. J. Locke is coming into the enjoyment of a deserved popularity throughout the several nations where English fiction is read. His is a unique achievement,—or at least the method of it is unique. Mr. Locke has so far mastered his tools and his materials that his later novels stand the test of good literature: the best of them not only provide keen pleasure at the first reading but can be read again and again without losing their bloom,—or the reader his delight. Furthermore, he has peopled the realms of his fancy with living, breathing, sentient creatures. They are real people to us. Their doings, their sayings, their very thoughts have an almost startling verisimilitude, despite the fact that the protagonists of his dramas are invariably among the oddest, most quaintly freakish and fantastical strangers to conventionality of all the heroes of English fiction. Indeed, Mr. Locke's stories are novels without heroes,—unless we are to set up a new definition for heroic, enlarging the term to include the finer attribute of simple goodness, as well as all nobility of soul.

W. J. LOCKE

(The English novelist who has chosen "for his literary domain hitherto uncultivated tracts of human nature")

He gave us the first article of his artistic creed in these words from Marcus Ordeyne's diary: "Every family has its irrepressible, impossible, unpractical member, its *enfant terrible,* who is forever doing the wrong thing with the best intentions. Truth is the *enfant terrible* of the Virtues. Sometimes it puts them to the blush and throws them into confusion; at others it blusters like a blatant liar; at others, again, it stutters and stammers like a detected thief. There is no knowing how Truth may behave."

He is a truth-seeker always. He oftenest prefers to search for truth in strange guises,—in the quirks and sallies of some latter-day reincarnation of the soul of *El Ingenioso Hidalgo Don Quixote de la Mancha,* and how it strikes *his* contemporaries. I have said Mr. Locke's method is unique: it is almost as whimsical as Cervantes' own. Indeed, he gives freer rein to his own idiosyncrasies than any other living story-teller with whose work I happen to be acquainted. His novels refuse to fit into any known category in the easy classification of the bulk of contemporaneous fiction. They insist on occupying a class by themselves.

The eldest son of English parents some time resident in Barbadoes, William John Locke was born in 1863. After what must have been a pretty thorough preliminary preparation at Queen's Royal College, Trinidad, he went to England and entered St. John's College, Cambridge, in 1881, specializing in mathematics. Three years later he was graduated with highest honors in his subject, winning the "mathematical tripos." How he did it was a mystery, according to his friends, one of whom says it was at Cambridge that he "laid the foundation of his future career by studiously neglecting his studies." It is averred that he established the record of having attended only one lecture throughout his whole three years' course. He read comparatively little mathematics, but indulged in "a three years' orgy on English and French literature; he could always be found in some remote corner of the library reading some old book no one else had ever got hold of."

Early in his Cambridge course he began writing, and he published his first short story in 1882. But when he left the university the necessity of earning a living forced him to take up teaching, which he followed thereafter for thirteen years. The long vacation of nearly four months each year, which enabled him to travel and write, was a big advantage that he made the most of; but his detestation of "school-slavery" is vividly shown in Marcus Ordeyne's famous diatribe against mathematics,—which, by the

way, is one of the best denunciations ever put into print of that "utterly futile and inhuman subject." Before his baronetcy came to him Marcus had been engaged in "teaching to children the most useless, the most disastrous, the most soul-cramping branch of knowledge wherewith pedagogues in their insensate folly have crippled the minds and blasted the lives of thousands of their fellow-creatures,—elementary mathematics. . . . It trains the mind,—it teaches boys to think, they say. It doesn't. In reality it is a cut and dried subject easy to fit into a school curriculum. Its sacrosanctity saves educationalists an enormous amount of trouble, and its chief use is to enable mindless young men from the universities to make a dishonest living by teaching it to others, who in their turn may teach it to a future generation."

Mr. Locke released himself from that drudgery in 1897 when he became secretary to the Royal Institute of British Architects, a position he held for eleven years, in the course of which he was chosen a corresponding member of the leading architects' societies of Russia, Holland, Spain, and Portugal, and eventually an honorary associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects. Meanwhile he had published his first novel, "At the Gate of Samaria," in 1895; and followed it with two others in 1896, "The Demagogue and Lady Phayre" and "A Study in Shadows." These were 'prentice work, albeit of an unusual kind. "Derelicts" (1897) and "Idols" (1898) first attracted to their author the attention of discriminating readers of novels, both for their own noteworthy qualities and still more for their unmistakable promise of more brilliant things to be expected from the same hand. Slowly but steadily his audience grew with the publication of "The White Dove" in 1900, "The Usurper" in 1901, and "Where Love Is" in 1903.

"The Morals of Marcus Ordeyne," issued in 1905, was so far superior to all that had preceded it as to mark the real beginning of the period of Mr. Locke's masterwork. The earlier novels had displayed a remarkable talent for the purveying of quaint romanticism, but here was the evidence of genius. The book is still Mr. Locke's most original and most powerful achievement; though "The Belovéd Vagabond" (1906), which is probably the favorite among his stories with a larger number of readers, shows a considerable gain in artistry; and "Septimus," which (after serial publication as "Simple Septimus") last year became one of the half-dozen "best sellers" throughout the United States, signalizes a still further advance in constructive ability. Whether his new tale, "Simon the Jester," now appearing serially in the *American Magazine,* will prove as fine a piece of work as "Septimus" it is as yet too early to tell. It promises well.

The brilliant success of a stage version of "The Morals of Marcus" in London in 1906 turned our author's attention for a time to the theater and led to the production of two original dramas: "The Palace of Puck," 1907, and "Butterflies," 1908, and also in the latter named year of a dramatization of "The Belovéd Vagabond."

But after that excursion to the playhouse he concluded wisely that the novel, not the drama, was his true medium of expression. It is so despite the fact, nay, for this very reason, among others, that plot is almost the least consequential ingredient in his work. His intrigues are seldom more exciting than the complications of commonplace lives. Yet he is almost as contemptuous of the commonplace as Meredith, and therein lies the secret of his distinction of style,—a style so easy in its flow that infinite pains must have gone into its fashioning. The development of character is his supreme interest. The process of individual soul growth, set forth with a rare and salutary sense of humor, constitutes the fascination that holds his readers spellbound. We love his people for what they are, not for what they do or say,—though it is the adroit harvesting of these fruits of character, to be sure, that shows us what they are.

The characters he studies most closely and delineates with elaborate and loving care are extraordinary characters. The men of his choice are often almost weird variations from the average, even in physical aspect,—"queer" personalities,—endowed with moral qualities beyond the norm, with an unconventional chivalry that is none the less real and fine and moving because of the grotesqueness of its manifestation. The Belovéd Vagabond Paragot, more of a paradox than the book's title can indicate,—unkempt, unshorn, a disreputable idler and guzzler, having atrociously long black finger nails, and at the same time a diabolical mastery of the violin(!)—becomes a paragon of heroes when we learn of his great sacrifice for a great love. And Paragot possessed "the divine sense of humor which rainbows the tears of the world." Said Paragot, "When the soul laughs tears come into the eyes." We laugh with him, that way; we cannot laugh at him. The bungling and incompetent "Seer Marcous," saved from suicide only by accident, is at all times a man of sensitive honor, and because of him the world is a better place. And Septimus Dix, mere baby in worldly affairs and inventive genius, a sort of second edition of Marcus, giving his name and his life to a poor ruined girl,—who can read the story and not have a warm corner in his heart for him?

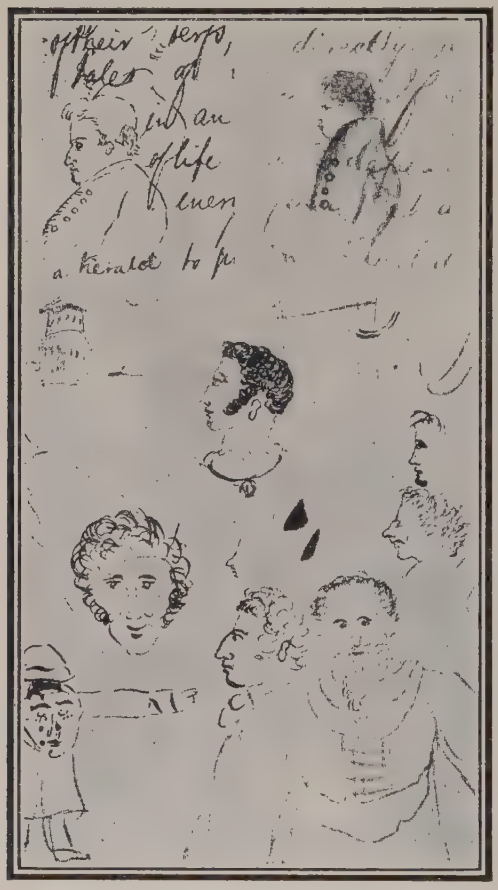
Mr. Locke's women are never such abnormal variations from type. But they are vital figures; and in Carlotta, a waif from the harem, he has sketched with astonishing mastery the evolution of a woman soul.

Having said all this, one has conveyed nothing of the charm of these delectable tales. Their appeal is compounded of delicate and unobtrusive humor and a gentle irony, as well as of the gifts of imagination and of language. Mr. Locke is a mild iconoclast, but he does not attempt to inculcate any new philosophy of life,—beyond repeatedly indicating, by persuasive implication rather than by insistent assertion, the prime importance of cheerfulness. "Life is a glorious thing," he says. And he proves it, even in those hitherto uncultivated tracts of human nature which he has chosen for his literary domain. His stories are a valuable addition to the noble volume of English fiction.

THE NEW BOOKS

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS

For a generation prior to his death, in 1882, Ralph Waldo Emerson had been the most widely read of American essayists. He had lectured from one end of the country to the other and had attained a position of intellectual leadership contested by none of his contemporaries and inherited by none of his successors. Much has been written and printed about Emerson since his death, and an abundance of memorabilia has come to light; yet the publication of his journal,[1] begun in his boyhood days and continued through half a century of active life, has been deferred to the present time. It was to this journal, the intimate daily companion of the youthful seer, that were first committed many of the thoughts that later found expression in his essays and lectures. Not all of this material is reproduced in the present edition, but the extracts chosen exemplify the range of Emerson's intellectual interests and activities during his growing years. The first two volumes cover the years 1820-1832, beginning with his college days and continuing through the period of his theological study and service as a Unitarian clergyman.



SKETCHES BY EMERSON IN THE LEAVES OF HIS COLLEGE JOURNALS

(Illustration from "The Journals of Ralph Waldo Emerson")

Count Regis de Trobriand was the only Frenchman after the Marquis de Lafayette to hold the rank of Major-General in the United States Army. The Count de Trobriand served with distinction during our Civil War and enjoyed the confidence of Generals Grant and Sherman and other federal commanders. His "Life and Memoirs,"[2] partly in English and partly in French, have now been collected and edited by his daughter, Mrs. Charles Alfred Post, and are published in a volume of 500 pages, chiefly in fine type. Less than half of the volume is devoted to General de Trobriand's army record, since his life in France and New York prior to the war affords much material of literary interest. General de Trobriand had become a writer of distinction before he had an opportunity to display his military abilities.

The two-volume biography of Richard Brinsley Sheridan,[3] by Walter Sichel, is published in this country by the Houghton Mifflin Company. It is to be said for this work that much new and original material has been exploited in its preparation, including a manuscript diary by the Duchess of Devonshire. The evolution of Sheridan's best-known play, "The School for Scandal," is traced through the original prompt-books which contained Sheridan's own corrections. There is appended a general bibliography of Sheridan's works, both published and unpublished.

HISTORICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Mr. James Ford Rhodes is one of the few Americans who have made historical writing a career. His "History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850" is the accepted authority for the period of which it treats. His rank as an American historian entitles Mr. Rhodes to a respectful hearing whenever he has anything to say on matters related to his calling. His volume of "Historical Essays"[4] recently issued comprises estimates of contemporary historians, journalists, and public men, as well as discussions of such topics as "The Professional Historian," "Newspapers as Historical Sources," and "The Writing of History." There are also suggestive papers on "The Presidential Office" and a review of President Hayes' administration.

[1] The Journals of Ralph Waldo Emerson. Edited by Edward W. Emerson and Waldo Emerson Forbes. Houghton Mifflin Company. 2 vols., 936 pp. $3.50.

[2] The Life and Memoirs of Comte Regis de Trobriand. By Marie Caroline Post. Dutton. 539 pp., ill. $5.

[3] Richard Brinsley Sheridan. By Walter Sichel. Houghton Mifflin. 2 vols., 1177 pp., ill. $7.50.

[4] Historical Essays. By James Ford Rhodes. Macmillan. 335 pp. $2.25.

"The People's Law,"[1] is the title adopted by Charles Sumner Lobingier for a book that he has written on the subject of popular participation in law-making. This writer has made an exceptionally careful study of American State constitutions from the Revolutionary period down to the present day. The submission of the written constitution to popular vote was the beginning of what we now know as the referendum in this country. Judge Lobingier, in studying this subject, found it necessary to follow the development not only of constitutions but of law-making in general. As his work advanced other questions presented themselves for discussion, such as the effect of the process of popular ratification, its desirability from the standpoint of political science, and the results toward which it appeared to be tending.

In Prof. John Bassett Moore's edition of the works of James Buchanan,[2] Volumes IX. and X. are devoted to the most important years in Buchanan's public career,—the period covered by his mission to the Court of St. James, the campaign of 1856 for the Presidency, and the eventful four years' term in that office culminating in the defeat of the Democratic party and the election of Lincoln in the fall of 1860. Buchanan's State papers, speeches, and private correspondence are in no way noteworthy as models of literary style, nor is that the purpose of their publication at this time. They do, however, constitute an important contribution to history, setting forth a point of view in American politics that became exceedingly unpopular in the Northern States during and after the Civil War, but which was undoubtedly held by large numbers of voters North and South down to the very outbreak of the conflict.

A really monumental work on modern Japan, written by a number of different authorities and edited by one of the most eminent of living Japanese, is the latest contribution to our already voluminous literature on the Far East. "Fifty Years of New Japan,"[3] dedicated to King Edward VII. of Great Britain and compiled by Count Okuma, late Prime Minister of the Empire and Minister for Foreign Affairs, contains chapters written by many of the most eminent Japanese scholars and statesmen of the past half century. These include Count Okuma himself, the late Prince Ito, Field Marshal Yamagata, Marquis Matsukata, Viscount Inouyé, Baron Shibusawa, Marquis Saionji, and Mme. Jingo Narusé,—the last named president of the Nippon Women's University, and one of the most eminent of living Japanese women. Every phase of Japanese modern life and national activity is treated exhaustively in the fifty-six pages of this two-volume work. The English version has been edited by Marcus B. Huish.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

Mr. Philip S. Marden, the author of "Greece and the Ægean Islands," has brought out another travel book,[4] this time telling the story of a journey across the Spanish peninsula from Gibraltar. While the illustrations (nearly all of which are reproductions from photographs taken by the author) are naturally suggestive of Spain's past, the text is devoted more completely than is customary in narratives of Spanish travel to the things of to-day. It is a fresh and readable presentation of Spain's modern activities as viewed by an observant American.

THE BURGOS CATHEDRAL

(Frontispiece from "Travels in Spain")

One would not go to "The Conquest of the Isthmus,"[5] by Hugh C. Weir, to get a statistical statement of the work on the Panama Canal, for the industrial, mechanical, and financial sides of that great enterprise have been treated with greater or less thoroughness by other publications. This deluge of statistical data should not conceal from us the real story of Panama, which has a human interest distinctively its own. It is this side of the subject with which Mr. Weir's book is eminently concerned. He tells us how the men in Uncle Sam's canal army live and do their daily work and enjoy their daily play. Perhaps few of us realize that down there, in the heart of the Panama jungle, 2000 miles from the base of supplies, we are maintaining an army 40,000 strong. Many of the men who constitute this army have their wives and children with them. Mr. Weir tells us how this community has brought civilization to the frontier and how its various social organizations,

[1] The People's Law. By Charles Sumner Lobingier. Macmillan. 429 pp. $4.

[2] The Works of James Buchanan. Edited by John Bassett Moore. Lippincott. Vols. IX. and X., 956 pp. $10.

[3] Fifty Years of New Japan. By Count Okuma. Dutton. 2 vols., 1262 pp. $7.50.

[4] Travels in Spain. By Philip S. Marden. Houghton Mifflin. 434 pp., ill. $3.

[5] The Conquest of the Isthmus. By Hugh C. Weir. Putnam. 238 pp., ill. $2.

women's clubs, bowling clubs, dramatic clubs, the Y. M. C. A., and other up-to-date agencies are working to ameliorate the hard conditions of life at this distant outpost.

Mr. Edward J. House, in a volume entitled "A Hunter's Camp-Fires,"[1] pictures life in widely separated regions whither he was attracted by the lure of big game. From the search for moose in New Brunswick and caribou in Newfoundland to African elephant, rhinoceros, and giraffe-hunting is a far cry; but the interest in Mr. House's experiences is not confined to the sport itself, for he gives vivid pictures of the life and environment of the sportsman in the various countries visited.

The first comprehensive, exhaustive, and at the same time popularly attractive guidebook to our neighboring republic, Mexico, has just been published under the general title "Terry's Mexico."[2] This is the result of many years of travel and personal observation and experience, and it contains an amazing amount of information logically and most interestingly set forth. Although planned on the Baedeker model, "Terry's Mexico" is more detailed and fuller in scope. It is, moreover, equipped with more human descriptive interest. There are two maps and twenty-five plans and an extensive bibliography. It is important to add the statement that within the past few weeks the Mexican Government has officially recognized the accuracy and usefulness of this handbook.

Another noteworthy book on Mexican life and history is Thomas Janvier's "Legends of the City of Mexico."[3] These genuine folk stories, which Mr. Janvier declares he has not materially altered, are almost all new to the reading world. The volume is illustrated.

LITERATURE

The third volume of Dr. Jusserand's "Literary History of the English People"[4] makes up Part II. of the entire work, and treats of the period from the Renaissance to the Civil War. There is something that reminds one of Taine in the clear, illuminating scholarship of Ambassador Jusserand. This great work will take a worthy place among the really remarkable works of French scholars interpreting English life and literature as few Englishmen have succeeded in doing. The frontispiece to this volume is the reproduction of an old wood engraving showing the Southwark entrance to London in Shakespeare's time.

We are not accustomed to think of the late George Meredith as a poet, and yet his influence upon the poets and poetry of the late Victorian age was considerable. The idealism and lyric fervor of the man can be read in almost every line of the large number of poems he wrote, which are now being collected and issued in memorial volumes. The Scribners have just brought out two of these,—one, "Poems Written in Early Youth"[5] and the other "Last Poems."[6] The first mentioned was brought out originally in 1851. To the original collection a number of hitherto unpublished poems have been added. The last poems include the famous ones: "The Years Had Worn Their Season's Belt," "Trafalgar Day," and "The Centenary of Garibaldi."

The same publisher has brought out Maurice Buxton Forman's "George Meredith: Some Early Appreciations,"[7] which is a collection of many contemporary notices of Meredith's books as they appeared. Good supplementary reading to the last-noticed book is James Moffatt's literary study of Meredith's novels.[8]

NOTEWORTHY BOOKS OF REFERENCE

It is more than a century since Noah Webster began work on his great dictionary, but in the brief list of American lexicographers no name ranks with his to-day. Our fathers and grandfathers were brought up on "Webster's Unabridged," and now the "New International"[9] is put forth by the same publishing house which for nearly seventy years has managed this remarkable series of dictionaries. Dr. Webster himself was thought to have achieved no slight triumph in lexicography when in 1828 he defined 70,000 English words and won lasting approval by the clearness, accuracy, and comprehensiveness of his definitions, but what shall be said of this newest of dictionaries with its 400,000 words and phrases, all defined in the characteristic Websterian style? The "New International" boasts not only of a greatly enlarged vocabulary, but of a great wealth of general information which was indeed undreamed of in Webster's time, but which we treat to-day as matter of course. A new typographical arrangement makes possible the inclusion of these truly vast additions without materially adding to the bulk of the dictionary. All the words in more common use are printed in large type on the upper half of the page, while the minor and more special or technical entries are condensed in smaller type on the lower half. The staff of editors who were engaged for six years in preparing this revision was headed by the late Dr. W. T. Harris, formerly United States Commissioner of Education. The work was completed before his death last November. The "old International" (1890) was esteemed a great advance on its predecessor, the "Unabridged," but all previous efforts of publishers and editors have been eclipsed by the "New International" of 1910.

Among the striking and noteworthy articles in the sixth volume of "The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge,"[10] is the joint contribution on "Jesus Christ," by Professor Warfield, of Princeton, and Professor Bacon, of Yale. These writers deal with

[1] A Hunter's Camp-Fires. By Edward J. House. Harpers. 402 pp., ill. $5.

[2] Terry's Mexico. By T. Philip Terry. Houghton Mifflin Company. 824 pp., ill. $2.50.

[3] Legends of the City of Mexico. By Thomas A. Janvier. Harpers. 165 pp., ill. $1.30.

[4] A Literary History of the English People. Vol. III. By J. J. Jusserand. 629 pp. Putnam. $3.50.

[5] Poems Written in Early Youth. By George Meredith. Scribners. 269 pp. $1.50.

[6] Last Poems. By George Meredith. Scribners. 64 pp. $1.25.

[7] George Meredith: Some Early Appreciations. By Maurice Buxton Forman. Scribners. 229 pp. $1.50.

[8] George Meredith: A Primer to the Novels. By James Moffatt. New York: Hodder & Stoughton. 403 pp. $1.25.

[9] Webster's New International Dictionary. Edited by William T. Harris and F. Sturges Allen. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company. 2700 pp., ill. $10.

[10] The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge. Vol. VI. Edited by Samuel Macauley Jackson. Funk & Wagnalls. 505 pp. $5.

the evidence upon which the claims of Jesus Christ rest and with the chief sources of information concerning Jesus outside the Gospel narratives. The biographical sketch of Pope Leo XIII. in this volume was contributed by an eminent Roman Catholic authority, Prof. James F. Driscoll, D.D., president of St. Joseph's Seminary. The publishers promise the completion of this work in twelve volumes, the remaining six to be issued at the rate of one volume every three months.

SOCIETY AND GOVERNMENT

Mr. William R. George has written an entertaining sketch of what has for years been known as the George Junior Republic.[1] In the early days of this enterprise the REVIEW OF REVIEWS published an account of the beginnings of the "Republic" at Freeville, N. Y., together with an exposition of its founder's ideals. Since that time this self-governing community has attained a national reputation and has prospered far beyond the expectations of those who were associated with Mr. George in the launching of the experiment. It has had many imitators, so that the name of its founder is no longer so exclusively identified with the idea of boy and girl self-government as it was in the early days. But the fact that there are so many other "junior republics" is a strong testimony to the value of the original idea.

In a single rather bulky volume appear the results of a critical study of police organizations[2] in the United States and abroad, by Dr. Leonhard Felix Fuld, examiner of the Municipal Civil Service Commission of New York City. Strange as it may appear, it is said that this is the first attempt to present a logical exposition of the principles of police administration. The author has succeeded in collecting data from a wide range of sources, both here and abroad, and has had the advantage of counsel and suggestions from Prof. Frank J. Goodnow, of Columbia University.

Professor Laughlin, of the University of Chicago, is a good representative of those scientific economists of to-day who are disposed to deny that the results of their scientific investigations are in any way out of harmony with the fundamental teaching of religion and ethics. In his new books on "Latter-Day Problems,"[3] Professor Laughlin presents a series of studies on vital economic topics, beginning with the question of labor unions and discussing in turn "Socialism, a Philosophy of Failure," "The Abolition of Poverty," "Social Settlements," "Political Economy and Christianity," "Large Fortunes," "Value of Railways," "Guarantee of Bank Deposits," "The Depositor and the Bank," and "Government versus Bankists." In one of the most interesting chapters in the book, —that concerned with social settlements,—the aims as well as the limitations of those institutions are candidly and fairly discussed. Professor Laughlin's book is written throughout in a popular style, with marked freedom from professional or academic cant.

[1] The Junior Republic. By William R. George. Appletons. 326 pp., ill. $1.50.
[2] Police Administration. By Leonhard Felix Fuld. Putnam. 551 pp., ill. $3.
[3] Latter-Day Problems. By J. Laurence Laughlin. Scribners. 314 pp. $1.50.

MR. WILLIAM R. GEORGE

(Founder of the George Junior Republic, who has just written a book on the subject)

Dr. Barnett, of the Johns Hopkins University, has investigated the history of trade unionism among the American printers. It will doubtless surprise many of our readers to be informed that meetings for the purpose of organization among journeyman printers were held in New York as early as 1776, and before the close of the eighteenth century, or shortly thereafter, permanent societies or associations had been formed in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston. From these early beginnings Professor Barnett traces the spread of trade organization among the printers throughout the country down to the present day of well-developed "typographical unions." It is to be inferred from the intelligence of this group of workmen that the records of their organizations, both local and national, would be better preserved than those of other labor unions, and such has been found by Professor Barnett to be the fact. Another reason for selecting the printers for description is to be found in the fact that the policies and methods which have since been adopted in other trades had their origin with the printers. This study of their organization is therefore a useful contribution to the history of American trade unions.[4]

In his new book on "Transportation"[5] Mr. Emory R. Johnson discusses steam railroads, electric railways, and ocean and inland transportation. The developments in all these fields are so rapid that frequent revision of text-books is required. On the subject of steam railroad transportation, for example, to which Mr. John-

[4] The Printers: A Study in American Trade Unionism. By George E. Barnett. Cambridge, Mass.: American Economic Association. 396 pp. $1.50.
[5] Elements of Transportation. By Emory R. Johnson. Appleton & Co. 377 pp. $1.50.

son properly devotes much greater space than to either of the other topics which he treats, there is now a marked tendency toward the substitution of electricity. This tendency, however, has not yet affected the operation of the railroads to such an extent as to make radical changes in the operation of their freight departments or general traffic arrangements. The section of the book which Mr. Johnson has given to electric railway trains is comparatively small and will doubtless require expansion in later revisions. In his chapter on inland waters in the United States the author has included considerable material not easily accessible elsewhere. On the whole his book constitutes a valuable manual of the subject.

ENGINEERING TREATISES.

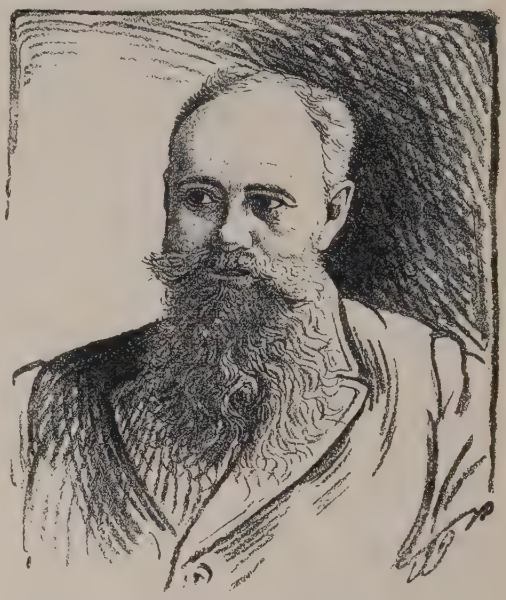
The signal engineer of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railway, Mr. James B. Latimer, has written a book on the elements of railway signaling.[1] While this volume is, of course, intended chiefly for the use of men connected with the signaling departments of our great railroads, it has been written in a way to interest the general reader. Very few treatises on this subject are accessible to the public, although no branch of railroad operation has received more attention in recent years in the public press, and on no subject connected with railroading is popular ignorance more widespread. Mr. Latimer has a direct and pointed style, and has made a special effort to have his text accompanied by effective illustrations.

From time to time we have mentioned in these pages the works of William Paul Gerhard, dealing with various phases of sanitary engineering.[2] His latest book treats in comparatively small compass of a wide range of practical topics connected with modern sanitation. Like the author's previous books, this little manual is calculated to acquaint the general public with the tasks assumed by the new profession of sanitary engineering and to give helpful suggestions in the direction of securing co-operation between builders and engineers.

RECENT FICTION

There are several stories contained in and running through Irving Bacheller's latest piece of fiction, which he has called "The Master."[3] The book, he would have us know, is intended to "show the influence of one Christlike soul over the dominant spirit of one who is styled 'the Napoleon of discontent.'" There is a world-wide conspiracy of anarchy and considerable preaching and homiletics, with a good love story skillfully woven throughout.

For his latest and greatest work of fiction, "The Song of Songs,"[4] Hermann Sudermann will no doubt be condemned by those holding that it is the duty of a writer who fashions evil characters to make plain his hatred for their wickedness,—that, in fact, a novelist ought to be a moralist. This imposing creation treats of the career of a young woman who wanted to be better than her nature allowed her to be. She was concurrently endowed with extreme feminine softness and ardent amatory passions, which, taken advantage of by calculating and unrelenting male pursuers, led to her frequent downfalls. Lilly Czepanek struggled and strove against her fatal weakness, for she had yearnings toward a high though perhaps vague ideal. But under lasting temptation the very goodness and sweetness of this lovable girl would turn into flabby laxity and temptation seemed foreordained by those characteristics whose born



HERMANN SUDERMANN

(Whose novel, "The Song of Songs," has just been published in English)

victim she was. Thus might one understand the author's intent, although according to a different, but perhaps equally plausible view, he might be taken as asking whether Lilly's frailty was not mixed with the vicious appetite for pleasure and luxury proper to a courtesan. Neither accusing nor excusing the luckless Lilly, Herr Sudermann tells the tale with a tremendous depth and breadth of knowledge of men's motives; he possesses the gift of the supreme masters of fiction to see the real workings of the human mind clearly. He has also their impulse to depict these truly, without regard to popular preference or pretense. Next to a passage of beautiful sentiment expressed in poetic language will come a scene or colloquy that flares forth nakedly licentious or brazenly cynical, the author standing aside while with impartial hand he withdraws the curtain, determined to reveal the whole truth. All this is conceived and carried out on a grand scale. Tensity, point, brilliance, an immense scope of observation, complete ripeness of perception, superb powers of presentment,—these and other tokens of genius so distinguish "The Song of Songs" as to ren-

[1] Railway Signaling in Theory and Practice. By James Brandt Latimer. Mackenzie, Klink Company. 420 pp.

[2] Sanitation and Sanitary Engineering. By William Paul Gerhard. Published by the Author. 174 pp. $1.50.

[3] The Master. By Irving Bacheller. Doubleday, Page & Co. 302 pp. $1.20.

[4] The Song of Songs. By Hermann Sudermann. New York: B. W. Huebsch. 640 pp. $1.40.

der its technical defects of workmanship forgivable, or at least forgetable. At most three or four prose romances of such caliber have been seen since Tolstoy's "Resurrection," ten years ago, and therefore, although "The Song of Songs" might dismay through its stark, unclad candor, even to the degree of evoking denunciation thereby, it must none the less be ranked among the very prime achievements in fiction thus far in the twentieth century.

The many readers of Baroness Bettina von Hutten's books will welcome "Beechy,"[1] the latest from her pen. Beechy (the anglicized form of Bice, the Italian diminutive of Beatrice) is, like her predecessor the wonderful Pam, one of those rare characters which this writer invests so cleverly with a personality so fascinating that the reader having once taken up the book is loath to lay it down until he has finished it. From the time when, to obtain the money needed to purchase medicine for her sick father, she borrows a suit of boy's clothes and sings in them in the chorus, until she reaches the highest rung in the professional ladder of fame, the story carries the reader along without a dull page.

Two books on children written with peculiar insight into the workings of the juvenile mind are Josephine Daskam Bacon's "Biography of a Boy"[2] and Marietta Holley's "Samantha on Children's Rights."[3] These writers come at the subject from a slightly different standpoint, but they both have the proper perspective of adult and youth and both write in a charming and entertaining way.

A subtle psychological study of a woman's development from natural resentment and indignation at a great wrong to forgiveness, justice, and love, written with the technical mas-

COVER DESIGN FROM "THE BIOGRAPHY OF A BOY"

tery that characterizes the French literary art, is the story which the Parisian authoress (who signs herself "Pierre de Coulevain") has given us under the title rendered by the translator as "On the Branch."[4] It is the life story of a woman who has been greatly wronged by her husband and her dearest friend, and who gradually progresses from hatred and pessimism to exalted love and optimism. The transition is worked out with delicate psychological insight.

MRS. HENRY DE LA PASTURE
(Author of "The Tyrant")

Another well-executed piece of psychological analysis on the subject of home despotism is Mrs. Henry de la Pasture's new novel, "The Tyrant."[5] There are in the world a great many men like Richard Kemys and undoubtedly as many women like his submissive, frightened wife. Perhaps these Richards are among the main causes of the feminist movement all over the world.

The last novel of the late F. Marion Crawford, the manuscript of which was completed at the time of the author's death (a few days later than that of "The White Sister"), is entitled "Stradella."[6] It is a strong love story of the middle of the seventeenth century, built around the life of Stradella, the musician. As with all Mr. Crawford's novels, it is full of love scenes and difficult situations and rich in the author's descriptions of Italian life and scenery.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

A collection of the public speeches of Winston Spencer Churchill, M.P., one of the most conspicuous figures in the present Liberal ministry in Great Britain, comes to us under the general title "Liberalism and the Social Problem."[7] In these addresses, delivered at various times during the past five years, Mr. Churchill has attempted to give "the record of the government." His style is vigorous and has a fine literary quality. There is an introduction to this collection by the Liberal political leader, H. W. Massingham.

[1] Beechy. By Bettina von Hutten. Stokes. 381 pp. $1.50.
[2] The Biography of a Boy. By Josephine Daskam Bacon. Harpers. 322 pp., ill. $1.50.
[3] Samantha on Children's Rights. By Josiah Allen's Wife. Dillingham. 318 pp., ill. $1.50.
[4] On the Branch. By Pierre de Coulevain. Dutton. 406 pp. $1.25.
[5] The Tyrant. By Mrs. Henry de la Pasture. Dutton. 381 pp. $1.25.
[6] Stradella. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan. 415 pp., ill. $1.50.
[7] Liberalism and the Social Problem. By Winston Spencer Churchill. George H. Doran Company. 414 pp. $1.50.

HAROLD BEGBIE

(Whose book, "Twice-Born Men," is noticed on this page)

A new edition of Dr. B. E. Fernow's "A Brief History of Forestry"[1] contains what was unfortunately omitted from the publication two years ago, namely, a chapter on forestry in the United States of America. With the growing interest in the subject of forestry in this country such a useful and comprehensive work as Dr. Fernow's should find a large number of readers.

What is known in this country as "district nursing" has had a remarkable extension during the past few years. In the United States alone there are now 566 visiting-nurse associations, with a total staff of 1413 nurses. In the past year 112 new organizations were formed. So important has this work become that the Charities Publication Committee of New York has brought out a directory of all visiting-nurse organizations in the United States[2] with an account of the movement and a statement of its principles, by Yssabella Waters, of the Henry Street Settlement in New York City.

[1] A Brief History of Forestry. By Bernhard E. Fernow. Toronto: University Press. 438 pp. $2.50.
[2] Visiting Nursing in the United States. By Yssabella Waters. Charities Publication Committee. 367 pp., ill. $1.25.

It is very seldom that the "evidences of Christianity" have been set forth so vigorously, convincingly, and with such power of literary style and graphic illumination as is done by Harold Begbie in his collection of "conversion" stories which he has entitled "Twice-Born Men"[3] and further described as "a clinic in resurrection." These are psychological studies of types of London crime, misery, and degradation in which the phenomena of religious conversion is analyzed from the standpoint of the student of human nature. Mr. Begbie's style is crisp, direct, and compelling. Prof. William James has enthusiastically accepted the book as a "footnote in narrative" to his own work, "The Varieties of Religious Experience."

A translation from the original German text of "The Passion Play of Oberammergau,"[4] with an historical introduction by Montrose J. Moses, contains the entire setting of the drama and an exhaustive bibliography of books and magazine articles relating to passion plays in general and the Oberammergau play in particular.

For the lover of astronomy six interesting and valuable books have recently been published: "Curiosities of the Sky," by Garrett P. Serviss, which is a description of the curious bodies that may be observed in the sky (Harpers); "Astronomy from a Dipper," with charts by the author, Eliot C. Clarke (Houghton, Mifflin); a "History of Astronomy," by George Forbes, of Anderson's College, Glasgow, being one of the History of the Sciences series (Putnam); "How to Study the Stars," an important French work by L. Rudeaux, with some helpful diagrams (Stokes); "The Star-Gazer's Handbook," a brief guide for amateur students of astronomy, by Henry W. Elson (Sturgis & Walton); and "How to Identify the Stars," by Willis I. Milham (Macmillan).

Among the noteworthy books on art recently published are: "A New History of Painting in Italy" (Vol. III.), by J. A. Crowe and G. B. Cavalcaselle (Dutton); "The National Gallery of Art," by Richard Rathbun (Washington: The National Museum); "Catalogue of the Works of Art Belonging to the City of New York," prepared and issued by the Art Commission of the City of New York; "A History of Art in the Middle Ages" (Vol. II.), by G. Carotti (Dutton); "Art in Great Britain and Ireland," by Sir Walter Armstrong (Scribners); and "The Story of Dutch Painting," by Charles H. Caffin (Century).

[3] Twice-Born Men. By Harold Begbie. Fleming H. Revell Company. 280 pp. $1.25.
[4] The Passion Play of Oberammergau. By Montrose J. Moses. Duffield & Co. 218 pp. $1.

The American Review of Reviews

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

AN HISTORIC EPISODE IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, FRIDAY, MARCH 18, 1910

(The Republican "insurgents" have combined with the Democrats to take from the Speaker the power to appoint the Committee on Rules and to deprive him of membership on the committee. Speaker Cannon has left the chair and is endeavoring to rally the "regulars" to his support)

THE AMERICAN
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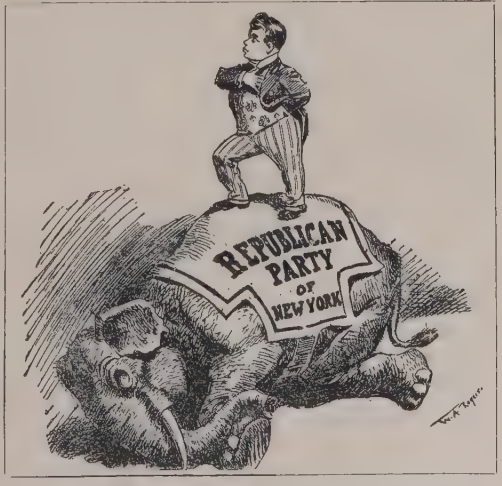
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Government versus "Business"

The people of the United States are trying to work out proper relations between law and government on the one hand and the modern forms of business life on the other hand. The Roosevelt administration awakened the country to the need of such adjustments, and it succeeded in accomplishing something toward bringing about the desired reforms. It was left for the Taft administration to propose an end of the period of agitation, and to find stable and workable solutions for various problems arising out of changed economic conditions. Almost everything in the political and legislative news of the past few weeks has had something to do with this struggle for right relations between business and government. The legislative disclosures at Albany, and the contest for the control of the Republican organization of the State of New York, would all be meaningless if not interpreted as phases in the fight to relieve the government of the Empire State from domination through the power of money furnished by business interests seeking their own advantage.

The New York System

The boss system in New York has had nothing to do with political leadership in a true sense. The boss has been the man who took the money from the corporations and then distributed it in such a way as to preserve his own power, while also making it certain that the corporations would contribute again the next year, and that the ultimate recipients of bounty would be willing again to receive it and glad to feed out of the boss's hands. The demoralization of the New York Legislature for many years past has been due simply to ill-adjusted relationships between business enterprises and the power of law and government. Perhaps the very least and smallest of the scandals of this New York period are those which through accident came into light some weeks ago and compelled the investigation at Albany of charges against the newly chosen leader of the State Senate. It is commonly believed that the instance of alleged bribery, upon which the long-drawn-out Allds-Conger inquiry has turned, is merely a minor illustration of a system that meant the buying and selling of legislative favors on a large scale. Governor Hughes himself is now carrying on an investigation into the purchase of lands for the Adirondack forest reserve. It is charged that large areas of land which have reverted to the State through non-payment of taxes



THE VICTORY OF STATE CHAIRMAN WOODRUFF
From the *Herald* (New York)

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Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

THE ALLDS-CONGER INQUIRY IN THE STATE SENATE AT ALBANY

after the valuable timber had been cut off were purchased for a few cents an acre at tax sales, and then bought again by the State for the forest reserve for several dollars an acre, all phases of the business being conducted by grafters more or less directly connected with the Albany legislative machine.

All in the Name of "Party"

Such are the charges, and Governor Hughes is likely to get at the bottom facts before he drops the subject. Superintendent Hotchkiss, of the State Insurance Department, has also on hand some investigations that point to bribery and corruption in the Legislature in connection with the affairs of various insurance companies. Most scandalous allegations have been made concerning the squandering of many millions of dollars in the condemnation and purchase of lands for the Catskill water supply that is to cost New York City at least a hundred million dollars. All these things, and various others that might be named, are a part of that famous New York "system" that has made politics profitable for professional politicians. This is what has built up in the Empire State the closely knit "organizations," so called, of party men, with their false theories of leadership and their impudent talk about party "regularity." They have invented a doctrine of party obedience that has been used for the benefit of the weak-minded, who like to think they have consciences, and who wish to justify in some way their good and regular standing in militant parties, even though deep down in their hearts they know that the "Black Horse Cavalry" at Albany is usually in the saddle and in the van.

A Two-Party Arrangement

The simple reason why it is so hard for the State of New York to shake itself free from the system that has heretofore controlled the Legislature is because it has been a bi-partisan system. Tammany Hall and the Republican machine have for many years been supported by the same interests. The chief business of the Legislature of New York for a generation, it would seem, has been to sell indulgences. Millions of dollars, it is said, have been paid by all sorts of interests,—transportation companies, lighting companies, telephone companies, insurance companies, and so on,—mostly under the guise of political contributions or counsel fees, in order to obtain desired privileges or to prevent the passage of some measure deemed harmful. The contributors of these funds have only cared to secure results. How the money was distributed was something they did not wish to know. The Republican part of this money was doubtless used very largely for the purpose of maintaining the system of so-called

leadership and regularity. Republican regularity in the State of New York has long meant that "good Republicans" must not do too much thinking, but must obey orders. Orders are supposed to come from the leader. Leadership centers at the point where campaign funds are received and disbursed. A liberal disbursement of funds, on a plan systematically conceived and worked out, has usually made it worth while for Republican members of the Legislature to work loyally in the organization and vote as the leaders dictate. The local party papers throughout the State have also been made to realize the desirability of supporting the organization and taking their respective places within the system. Independence has been risky and expensive.

The Controlling Factors

This wonderful Republican machine in the State of New York could never have had so long, prosperous, and powerful a career but for two highly important facts. One of those facts is the immensity of the private interests which have been able and anxious to support a system that would keep law and government in subservience. The other fact has been the existence of Tammany Hall, a great private conspiracy for the purposes of plunder, which has controlled so large a block of the Democratic members of the Legislature, in close and profitable alliance with the Republican machine, that it has never been possible to use one party in the State of New York as an instrument for punishing the venal methods of the other party. Furthermore, it must not be supposed that anything like a majority of the members of the New York Legislature have been in the habit of lining their pockets with thousand-dollar bills by reason of a cold-blooded, deliberate acceptance of bribes. Very many of them have simply been lacking in a proper sense of their personal responsibility as law-makers. They have sheltered themselves behind a false theory of party responsibility. They have found it safe and comfortable to be regular, and to give the machine the benefit of their own personal respectability, in exchange for having the State Central Committee give them support in their districts, and otherwise keep their political paths smooth and pleasant.

Photograph by Paul Thompson. N. Y.

STATE SENATOR JOTHAM P. ALLDS

Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

STATE SENATOR BENN CONGER (TO THE LEFT)

A Gradual Decline

The system has been steadily growing weaker ever since Theodore Roosevelt was elected Governor. The Ford franchise tax,—which public opinion and Roosevelt's encouragement carried through the Legislature against

Photo by Paul Thompson, N. Y.

MR. MARTIN W. LITTLETON

(The chief counsel for Senator Allds)

the utmost efforts of the party bosses and the corporations,—stands as a landmark in the history of the efforts of the people of New York to recover for themselves a real control over legislation. Various other popular victories have succeeded one another. Governor Hughes, in recent years, perhaps more than any one else, has stood before the people as representing the idea of the creation in the State of New York of a real Republican party, such as one finds in Massachusetts or Iowa, or even in Ohio. Governor Hughes now stands for a primary election law, the details of which are, indeed, important, but the motive of which is of far greater consequence. The intention of the proposed primary election law is to give the people a leverage by means of which they can still further emancipate themselves from the control of a set of bosses who have derived their power from the collection and distribution of corporation blackmail.

The Conger-Allds Affair

For the people of the whole country, the precise and detailed history of the investigation now pending in the New York Legislature at Albany is of no great importance. The essential things, however, are worth noticing from one end of the country to the other. The death of a veteran State Senator,—a case-hardened "regular," John Raines by name,—made necessary the choice of a new leader of the Republican majority in the Senate, and this leader, according to custom, is made president *pro tem.* of the body. The Republican caucus in January selected for the leadership Senator Jotham P. Allds, an old legislative hand, from Chenango County, in the middle of the State. A small group of Republican Senators refused to act with the caucus on the ground of personal objection to Allds. The caucus selection was, however, duly chosen and installed. Almost immediately afterward, a highly sensational statement appeared in the New York *Evening Post,* charging Allds with having received bribes, the statement being based upon accusations made by another Senator, Mr. Conger. Although Allds had heard privately that Conger had made statements in confidence to several fellow Senators, he seems to have ignored them until the publicity created by the New York *Evening Post* made an investigation necessary. Conger himself had not intended to have his ac-

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MR. JAMES W. OSBORNE

(Chief counsel for Senator Conger)

cusations become public; and only unforeseen leakages placed him in the position of a prosecuting witness.

Buying Legislation

Mr. Conger was connected with bridge companies which built and repaired bridges under control of county and local authorities. Changes in laws affecting the mode of procedure by the highway authorities in their respective localities would naturally have a bearing upon the business of the bridge companies. It was to the interest of the companies to prevent the passage of certain amendments to the highway laws. These matters came up year after year, and the bridge companies are said to have collected and disbursed certain sums of money to ward off undesired legislation. Senator Allds is accused of having taken some of this money. This magazine, with its great body of readers in other States, is not chiefly concerned about the individuals on either side of a painful situation in the Legislature at Albany. Whether the bridge companies were the more guilty as trying to bribe the law-makers, or whether the law-makers were more guilty as trying to blackmail the bridge companies, is a question that is not for us to answer. The important thing is the evidence of corrupt relations between business and politics, and the value for reform purposes of a concrete example that illustrates a general situation.

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UNITED STATES SENATOR ELIHU ROOT

As to a "Wider Inquiry"

Senator Conger, when to his great abhorrence he was forced into the position of an accuser, tried to minimize the bridge companies' affair by saying that it was merely a "flea bite" in comparison with the corruption that was habitually practiced by larger corporations, which had long been supposed to be spending money lavishly in the maintenance of the two party machines of the State. The course of the Allds inquiry naturally led to the introduction of bills for a broader investigation of legislative conditions. There came to be a general impression that the two party machines were determined, not only to prevent a real and thorough investigation of corrupt practices in the Legislature, but also to "whitewash" Senator Allds regardless of the facts disclosed in the pending inquiry. A test of strength came when the acceptance of Allds' resignation of the leadership last month led to the choice of his successor.

Root's Intervention

The regulars supported Senator Cobb, the more independent wing supported Senator Hinman, while a middle group supported Senator Davis. The contest finally lay between Cobb and Hinman. The State organization, led by its chairman, Mr. Woodruff, formerly Lieutenant-Governor, and with the energetic support of Mr. Wadsworth, Speaker of the Assembly, favored Mr. Cobb. Senator Root, at the critical moment, sent a telegram from Washington supporting Hinman and making it clear that President Taft and the leaders of the Republican party at large believed it necessary to make changes in the spirit and the personnel of the party organization in the State of New York. Governor Hughes also took the unusual course of expressing an opinion upon the selection of a leader of one of the legislative branches of the State government, agreeing with Senator Root in the support of Hinman. The contest was a very close one, Cobb being

STATE CHAIRMAN TIMOTHY L. WOODRUFF

elected by a majority of one, which was secured by his voting for himself. Whatever results this victory might have of an immediate sort in lessening the danger of sweeping inquiries into legislative corruption, it does not seem to have been a victory that can long save the machine from the disfavor of an aroused public.

Has Mr. Root Become a "Boss"?

The attempt was promptly made to confuse the public mind by attacking Senator Root as a new boss endeavoring to dictate the action of the Legislature and the control of the party. Mr. Root's methods have been precisely the opposite of those that belong to a political boss. His leadership is that of a man who expresses opinions publicly, in order that they may be accepted for what they are worth. Mr. Root believes that the Republican party in New York must cut loose from every alliance of a compromising sort and must appeal to the support of intelligent citizens who stand honestly for the public welfare. He believes it necessary that the party should accept and support in good faith the Hinman-Green direct primary bill advocated by Governor Hughes. Very likely Senator Root, like many of the rest of us, would not be very enthusiastic for this primary bill if political conditions were normal in the State of New York. From the standpoint of political machinery, theoretically regarded, this primary bill might be deemed a very doubtful innovation. But the situation is not wholesome or normal, and the direct primary bill stands for an honest effort to restore power to the people and to strengthen and vitalize parties and government in the State of New York. Senator Root, Governor Hughes, and the best minds of the Republican party believe that there should be a broad investigation of the charges of bribery and corruption in the Legislature. Among specific matters now pending they also support the demand of the Governor that telegraph and telephone companies should be placed fully under State supervision, and classed with railroads and other public service corporations now included in the sphere of the Public Service act which marked Governor Hughes' first term.

Some Men Who Are Concerned

Heretofore the State chairman, Mr. Timothy L. Woodruff, of Brooklyn, and the Speaker of the Assembly, Mr. James W. Wadsworth, Jr., have not been regarded as in any sense the champions of an improper alliance between politics and private money-making schemes. They have neither of them been dependent upon politics in any way for pecuniary profit. They have, rather, exhibited motives of natural ambition and a liking of the great American game of politics, that are not to their discredit. But within the party organization

TWO'S A CROWD
From the *World* (New York)

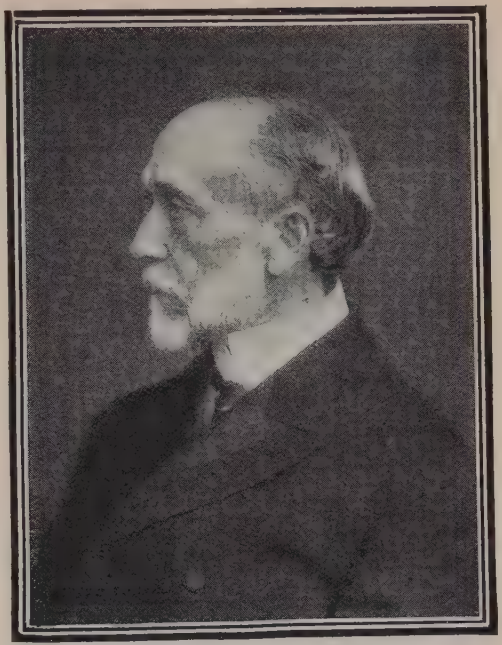
which has given them positions of prominence and authority there are other men whose records and careers have been comparatively sinister. And Mr. Woodruff and Mr. Wadsworth,—with Mr. Barnes, of Albany, and other men of talent for party work and organization,—do not seem to have enough of that other talent, which, after all, is exceedingly rare, of rising above the spirit and tone of their organization in moments of emergency, and of seeing that the only safe ground is that of the highest principle. These men are missing great opportunities.

The Process of Reform

It will be a very difficult task to turn the Legislature of the State of New York into a law-making body free from domination by private interests. But the effort must be made, and it will be attended with more than partial success. For, indeed, the process of reform is not chiefly a dramatic and showy affair. The party machines themselves are on a much higher plane than they were in the period of Mr. Platt's undisputed control. With the death of ex-Senator Platt last month, and the vigorous exercise of the new and better kind of influence by his successor at Washington, Senator Root, the turning-point seems to have been reached in the transition from the period of bossism to the period of intelligent, open leadership. Mr. Platt was not a leader at all, but the perfect agent of a system. He was no more responsible for the political conditions which made him the most typical boss of his generation, than Mr. John D. Rockefeller was responsible for the conditions in the American business world which made it possible for plain business men through the seizure of peculiar opportunities to obtain mastery of vast industrial resources. Mr. Platt was neither better nor worse than thousands of other men in politics. Perhaps the worst thing that can be said against him, as one considers his career, is simply this: Instead of trying to improve the bad political conditions of his time he used them for his own benefit. He chose to control for his own purposes the advantages made possible by evil conditions rather than to ally himself with the men who were trying to make the conditions better.

The Man and the State

Thus far we have been too highly individualistic in this country, as a natural consequence of our early history. Pioneer struggles taught every man to fight his own battle. Making one's own way, whether in business or in politics, up to a certain point seems to be the best contribution one can offer to the general welfare. Certainly a man does not seem to contribute to the common good by being a failure on his own account. But there comes to be a time when a man who is well established in his own personal position makes a monstrous mistake if he shows no sense of responsibility for the community's well-being and progress. The successful business man who goes on caring only for his own business interests, and for the aggrandizement of his own position, renders the community a very bad return for the opportunities it has given him. If the generation now passing away failed to see this clearly, it would not be worth while to fasten blame upon individuals. The history of the Standard Oil Company, for example, was last month under review before the United States Supreme Court. If business men in the coming half-century should go on doing the sort of thing that corporations like the Standard Oil were doing a generation ago to crush competitors and obtain monopolistic advantages, we might well despair of our ethical and social future. But the times are changing in business ways as well as in politics, and the successful business leader henceforth will be expected to consider the community as well



Photograph by Pach Bros.

THE LATE THOMAS C. PLATT, OF NEW YORK

MR. STARR J. MURPHY
(Counsel for Rockefeller Foundations)

MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR.
(Whose time is given to philanthropy)

as himself. At the very moment when the great legal battle over the Standard Oil Company was in its final stage before the Supreme Court last month, all the newspapers of the country were discussing Mr. Rockefeller's proposal to turn over another large part of his wealth to be used for the benefit of humanity under direction of a board of trustees that Congress was asked to incorporate.

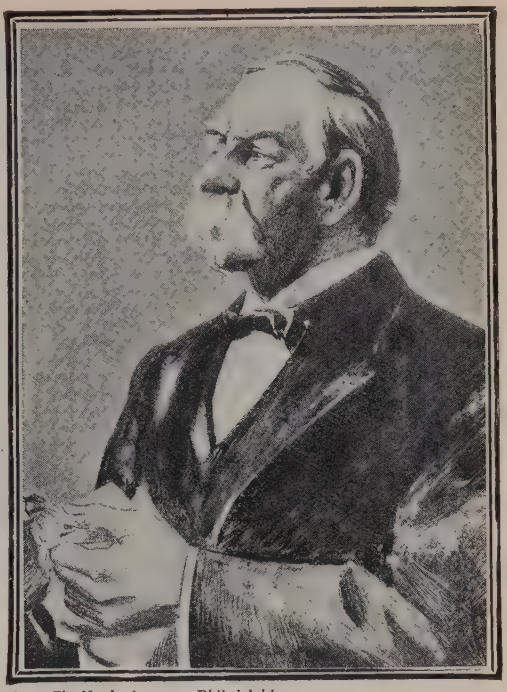
Mr. Rockefeller and the Use of Money-Power

The career of Mr. Rockefeller represents a transformation that would seem well-nigh impossible in a single lifetime. The speeches of Attorney-General Wickersham and Mr. Kellogg, in the Government's suit against Standard Oil as a monopolistic trust, reviewed in strong, bold outline those parts of Mr. Rockefeller's career that were devoted to building up his fortune by means pictured as wholly selfish and grasping, on the principle that business is a kind of relentless warfare. But the application to Congress, at the very same time, to create another of Mr. Rockefeller's benevolent corporations required an explanation of the aims and methods of the giver. This explanation was made before a Congressional committee by Mr. Starr J. Murphy, who is connected as a trustee and in a legal capacity with Mr. Rockefeller's public-spirited undertakings. The varied agencies of usefulness thus far set on foot through Mr. Rockefeller's beneficence,—or stimulated and helped by his carefully bestowed gifts,—have been just as effective for social usefulness as his concentrated business methods of a generation ago were effective for the building up of financial and industrial power under his own control. Those who are in doubt regarding the wisdom and disinterestedness with which Mr. Rockefeller's gifts,—already amounting to $100,000,000 or more,—have been made to serve social needs and the country's welfare, are lacking in full knowledge.

Reform in the Spirit of Business

The test of the really successful business man, as of the really successful politician, in the years to come, will be his ability and his disposition to make his own success a means of

benefit to his community and his country. Mr. Rockefeller never seems at any time to have been devoid of the motive of philanthropy; but neither does he seem ever to have grasped the idea that business itself ought to be a generous thing rather than a matter of warfare and conquest,—and that the leaders in business life ought to be foremost in showing the world how to improve business methods, for the diffusion of benefits among all who are honestly trying to make their way in the economic world. Just now, at Washington, our law-makers are trying to find ways of curbing the cruel rapacity of trusts without destroying the modern principle of large results through large combinations of capital. But it is also worth while to see if some measure of business reform may not be brought about through a different sentiment among business men, regarding their methods and their motives, in the uses to which they turn their success. We are, in fact, making real progress in those directions. For example, one has to go back only twenty-five or thirty years to a period when the great railroad men, the masters of our transportation lines, were impatient at the very suggestion of responsibility to the public. They considered that they were carrying on private business enterprises for their own enrichment. Nowadays they have admitted that the railroads are public carriers subject to public regulation and control, and most of them have gone even farther in these admissions than the history of American railroad enterprises would require.



From *The North American*, Philadelphia

MR. JOHN G. JOHNSON, OF PHILADELPHIA

(Who argued for the Standard Oil Co. last month)

Railroads and Public Rights

There is no longer any very radical difference between the leading railroad men and the best-informed advocates of public regulation regarding the proper governmental control that ought to be exercised. It is quite true that President Taft consulted freely with railroad presidents regarding the bill that is now pending in Congress, the principal points of which we have outlined in previous numbers of this REVIEW. But these railroad presidents were not lacking in a sense of the relation of railroads to the public welfare, and Mr. Taft was fully justified in listening to their views. Senator Cummins, —who is a careful and authoritative student of this whole subject, and who made a great speech in the Senate lasting two or three days in advocacy of a more stringent and complete Government control than the pending bill calls for,—is not talking in terms that are radically different from those that are employed by the railroad men themselves. There are important points of difference, but the fundamental antagonisms of twenty-five years ago are gone. The attitude of the railroads is neither menacing nor corrupt. Their principal difficulty nowadays is due to the need of providing facilities for the demands of a rapidly growing and very prosperous country. They are no longer objecting to any reasonable kinds of public regulation, as least so far as broad principles are concerned.

The Behavior of Monopolies

The regulation of industrial corporations is going to prove a difficult problem for the law-makers, but there is evidence in more than one quarter of the growth of a more reasonable spirit. On the one hand there is a weakening of the popular demand for smashing big trusts and corporations. On the other hand there is a more general admission that the great corporations should be brought under the rule of publicity, and that they should not be allowed to use their power destructively against competitors who are trying to do business in lawful ways. The best form

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FRANK B. KELLOGG (For the Government) | JOHN G. MILBURN (For the Standard Oil) | ATTORNEY-GENERAL WICKERSHAM (For the Government)

FAMOUS LAWYERS IN THE STANDARD OIL CASE BEFORE THE SUPREME COURT

of corporation control will, after all, be that which the corporations learn to apply to themselves in the ordinary conduct of their business. Thus "good corporations" treat their stockholders fairly, while the inner clique of "bad corporations" is always trying to swindle the stockholders by one method or another. Good corporations have some conscience as to their relations to decent people engaged in the same line of business; bad corporations are prepared to play any sort of indecent trick upon their competitors. Good corporations know that fair treatment of the general public is a necessary condition of desirable success; bad corporations are always trying to get the better of the public.

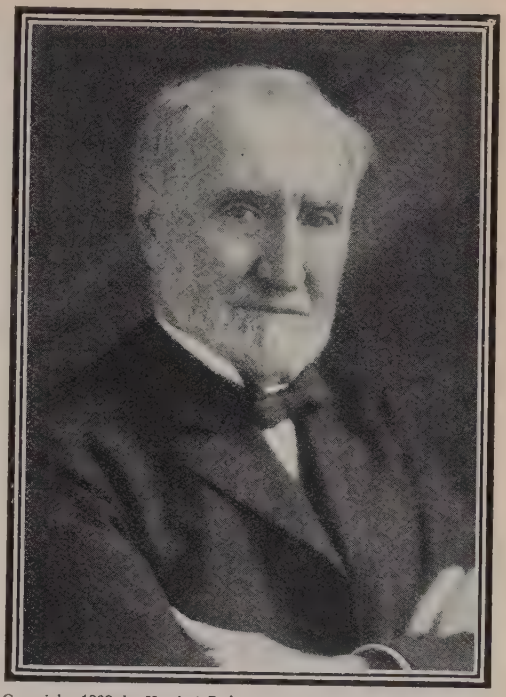
Insurgency Rampant

The policy of trying to put the screws upon independence of thought and speech in the Republican party had a somewhat unexpected result on March 18. The insurgents in the House of Representatives at Washington, in conjunction with the Democrats, gained a victory over the regulars and forced a rearrangement of the Committee on Rules. It would be a mistake to regard this result as merely a personal attack upon Speaker Cannon. If Mr. Cannon had not been, upon the whole, an exceptionally able and fair Speaker he could not have gained his position of great authority at the hands of four successive Congresses. But there has been a growing disposition in the Republican party to insist upon organized authority as against the traditional freedom of conscience, action, and speech that has always belonged to Republicanism in its best periods. Even Mr. Taft, and he perhaps more than any one else, has come under the delusion of this idea of party authority. He is constantly talking of party pledges, by which he means that forgotten chain of resolutions adopted in the convention at Chicago nearly two years ago. It is not convincing to assert that any man's conscience and intellect, as respects a pending public question, must be held subject to a party platform which most people would not even know where to find in print. What the country wants is to have questions dealt with upon their merits at the present moment, rather than upon lines laid down in campaign platforms. The only salvation for the Republican party lies in tolerating insurgency, so called, and proclaiming full freedom of opinion and speech.

Last Month's Storm in Congress

The Republican regulars, if they are discerning, will understand that a few insurgent victories at Washington must help to clear the air betimes; whereas a continued squelching of the insurgents would mean the inevitable defeat of the Republican party all along the

line in the November elections. "Uncle Joe" Cannon is a gentleman whose personal popularity is not likely to vanish; but the country has grown disaffected toward the masterfulness of the ruling clique in each House of Congress. The opposition to what is called "Cannonism" and "Aldrichism" in the country at large is not so much due to things in particular as to a "state of mind." The rules of the House give an enormous power to the Speaker, but along with his authority goes also great responsibility. It must be remembered that the very focusing of power tends to check both recklessness and misconduct in the exercise of that power. One of the principal agencies through which the House conducts its business is the Committee on Rules. Under the system that has existed for a good many years the Speaker himself is chairman of the Rules Committee. Mr. Cannon's associates on that committee in the present Congress have been Mr. Dalzell, of Pennsylvania; Mr. Smith, of Iowa; Mr. Clark, of Missouri (leader of the Democratic minority), and Mr. Fitzgerald, of New York (Tammany Democrat). For a year or two the insurgents in the House have been fighting against the existing rules. The chief fight was not last month, but a year ago. What happened last month was merely a dramatic situation and a victory for the opponents of the present rules at an unexpected moment. Those who would like to refresh their memories by reading a thoroughgoing discussion of the questions involved should turn back to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for the month of April, 1909, just one year ago. The attack upon the rules in that number was made by ex-Governor Swanson, of Virginia, for a long time a Democratic member of the House. The article explaining and defending the existing rules was written for us by Mr. Stevens, of Minnesota, one of the real ornaments of the House of Representatives, who was assisted in preparing his article by the highest parliamentary authorities in Washington.



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HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON, OF ILLINOIS

(Deprived of Membership in the Rules Committee, but still Speaker of the House of Representatives)

What Happened

The thing that happened last month can be stated in a few sentences. Mr. Crumpacker, of Indiana, chairman of the Committee on the Census, asked unanimous consent to bring forward a small amendment to the census law against which there could be no opposition. The technical question arose whether Mr. Crumpacker was in order by reason of certain rules of the House as to the calendar. Mr. Crumpacker took the ground that since the census is mandatory under the Constitution his motion relating to it was one of privilege and therefore superior to the rules. Mr. Crumpacker's point was sustained, after a protracted debate showing ample ability. Meanwhile the insurgents had been so much persecuted in one way and another that they had been especially restless for some time, and had won a small victory or two. With the aid of the Democrats, for example, they had refused to allow an appropriation for the maintenance of the Speaker's automobile. Mr. Norris, of Nebraska, a well-known insurgent, rose in his place and,—in answer to the Speaker's inquiry for what purpose he asked recognition,—he stated that he had a resolution involving a point of constitutional privilege. The Speaker's fatal step was in recognizing Mr. Norris. When the resolution was read it turned out to be one demanding a new Committee on Rules, much larger than the present one, to be elected in a somewhat elaborate way by the majority and minority members of the House, with the distinct proviso that the Speaker should not be a member. The issue could not be side-tracked.

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REPRESENTATIVE GEORGE W. NORRIS, OF NEBRASKA

(Leader of the Republican "insurgents" in the parliamentary battle which resulted in the removal of the Speaker from the Rules Committee)

The Dramatic Contest

Judge Norris' motion was made on Thursday afternoon, and it resulted in a parliamentary battle that raged nearly all that night. The parliamentary day of Thursday was continued through Friday, and the question finally came to a vote Saturday afternoon. Thirty-five Republicans voted with the entire body of Democrats, with the result that the Norris resolution in a simpler form was adopted. Mr. Cannon's fight was a very plucky one, while that of the insurgents was resolute and entitled to respect. It seems to have been thought that to exclude Mr. Cannon from the Rules Committee would lead inevitably to his immediate retirement from the Speakership. This, however, did not follow. A change in the Speakership at this stage in the work of the session would be followed by great embarrassment, if not by legislative chaos. A coalition of Democrats and insurgents to change the rules was permissible, because the rules of the House cannot be called Republican or Democratic, since they involve nothing but the judgment of the membership of a parliamentary body as to the manner in which it will carry on its business. But the election of a Speaker is a wholly different matter. The insurgent Republicans could not act with the Democrats in the choice of a Speaker, as against the great body of Republican members, without losing their party standing.

Mr. Cannon's Position

Mr. Cannon had already been elected Speaker for the lifetime of the present Congress. Nothing had happened to justify his retirement or removal at the present time. The rules fight was a different affair, because every one has known that an actual majority of the membership of the House has for a good while been prepared to change the rules at any moment when it could seize upon the chance to make the proper parliamentary play. Naturally Mr. Cannon, after the vote had gone against him on the Norris resolution, offered to entertain then or at any time a motion vacating the Speakership. Such a motion was actually made by a Democratic member, and of course the Democrats *pro forma* voted in favor of it. But only a little group, rather less than a quarter, of the Republican insurgents allowed themselves to be counted in favor of deposing Mr. Cannon. Four successive terms is a very long time for a Speaker to bear up under the strain of the position Mr. Cannon holds. He ought not to be a candidate for the Speakership of the Sixty-Second Congress, and it is not supposed by his friends that he has any intention of that kind. It was expected that the members of the new Committee on Rules, which is to be composed of six Republicans and four Democrats, would be selected and set at work about the first of April. The chances were that Mr. Dalzell, who has been ranking member of the old committee, might become chairman of the new one.

Business in the House

It has been pointed out that in future under this new arrangement the chairman of the Committee on Rules would become a personage of a good deal of authority, and that there might at times be some strain between the Speaker and the head of the Rules Committee in the exercise of general control over the business processes of the House. There are 391 members of the House of Representatives, and the number of bills introduced in a session sometimes reaches thirty thousand. Each member of this large body is naturally anxious to get his bills reported from com-

Photograph by Paul Thompson

A SCENE IN THE PHILADELPHIA STREET RAILWAY STRIKE

mittees and brought under consideration. The line between the Speaker's arbitrary authority and a chaotic freedom on the part of individual members is not an easy one to draw. Insurgents and regulars alike were at pains to declare that they were not fighting the President or his policies, and that they desired to accomplish a reasonable amount of constructive legislation before adjournment. At Washington as at Albany this blowing off of political steam early in the year is fortunate for the Republican party, inasmuch as it gives some time for reconciliation before the campaign begins, and also makes it possible to say that certain issues have already been met and disposed of. The regulars will now not be too eager to invade the States and districts of the insurgents, while the insurgents will not be so militant against the regulars. Everybody will be anxious to complete the session at Washington and get into close touch with the voters at home. It is likely, therefore, that adjournment may be reached about the first of June. It is expected that the railway bill in some form will be passed; but it is not likely that ship subsidies will be voted in face of the fall elections.

Corporations and Strikes

In one respect corporations have not yet learned the lesson of their proper duty to the public. They should not be allowed to indulge in protracted quarrels with their employees. This dictum in particular should apply to all public service corporations, particularly those engaged in transportation. However ingeniously it may state the case, there is usually something wrong with the street railway company that subjects a prosperous city to inconvenience by getting into a predicament with its employees and subjecting itself to a strike and a tie-up of traffic. In the matter of street railways the public interest is superior to that of the corporation on the one hand or the employees on the other. In cities like Philadelphia and New York enormous fortunes have been made by individuals enjoying exclusive franchises for carrying passengers in street cars. The people controlling such franchises owe it to the communities they serve to employ skillful and well-trained motormen and conductors and to treat these men in such a way that they could have no provocation for a general strike. The State ought to provide some system for dealing conclusively with labor disputes.

Evils of the Strike in Philadelphia

This great strike in Philadelphia has been so wasteful and miserable an affair from many standpoints that it ought to stimulate thoughtful people in every State of the Union to make advance provision against similar failures of civilization in their own cities. The public authorities of Pennsylvania have been at fault in not making better provision for the solution of labor difficulties. They have had so much misery in that State from industrial warfare in years past that they ought to have learned peaceful ways to adjust labor disputes. Both State and city have had heavy bills to pay in their attempts to protect life and property. The street railroad company will have lost much more than it can ever have gained through its failure to deal with its own men in such a way as to keep their loyalty. But trade-unionism, on the other hand, will also have lost a great deal through its reckless resort to the sympathetic strike. The attempt to punish everybody, in a great variety of different ways, as a means of bringing the street railway company to terms, is not merely reckless, but it is also stupid. It must turn many a friend of organized labor into an implacable enemy. In Philadelphia two unions were involved and the traction companies tried to play one off against the other. In the negotiations for a settlement of the strike the companies' recognition of the Keystone Association of employees, whose members did not strike, was one of the chief stumbling-blocks. The dominance of politics in the situation was made manifest when Senator Penrose actively intervened and forced from the street-car managers large concessions to the strikers; yet even these concessions were insufficient to bring about a settlement.

CLARENCE O. PRATT
(The labor leader who led the Philadelphia car strike)

Labor and the Railroads

February was a month of general unrest among the employees of the transportation lines. While the serious strike on its street car lines disturbed Philadelphia, the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad came to the verge of a break with its conductors and trainmen. At the last moment, President Willard called in the good offices of Commissioner of Labor Neill, who succeeded, by offering concessions to each side from the other, in bringing about a peaceful settlement. The Pennsylvania Railroad, the New York Central, and the New Haven were, in the latter part of the month, still arguing with their men and the public. The stock market, which had paid no attention to the troubles in Philadelphia, and which is not in the habit of turning bearish on the news of labor troubles, felt a shiver at the further news that 25,000 firemen, on forty-nine railroads, were on the point of striking with the avowed purpose of tying up practically all the important lines west of the Mississippi. In the middle of the month, when the general managers of the affected roads had failed to meet their men on certain questions of conditions of labor as well as increases of pay, the situation had become so acute that Chairman Knapp, of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and Commissioner of Labor Neill went to Chicago as intermediaries. Their efforts seemed at first to promise a settlement of the trouble, but repeated conferences failed to secure even a working basis of agreement. The railroads were not alone in their labor troubles in February; the coal miners of the Middle West made demands for increased pay, which were flatly refused by the operators, and President T. L. Lewis, of the United Mine Workers of America, answered the refusal with a promise to shut down every coal mine in America unless the demands of the men were met.

The Arguments of the Railroads

The sudden and widespread demands of labor for better wages, a few instances of which are noted above, have been clearly foreseen as an inevitable result of the recent course of prices in this country and the resulting high cost of living. The reasonableness of the employees' point of view has been advertised by the newspapers and periodicals of the entire country in the current discussion of the increased cost of living and by the many investigations into the causes of higher prices. The managers of the employing railroads have, therefore, taken great pains to prepare their side of the case and to show that if the living problem is a hard one for the men, it is a harder one for the railroad. Their contention is that while everything the railroad buys has increased in price even more than have the necessities of the trainmen, the railroad income per ton-mile has actually decreased since 1902, while the compensation of the trainmen has increased during the same period by from 20 to 30 per cent. The *Wall Street Journal* makes an interesting analysis of the situation from the statistics of food prices, published by the Bureau of Labor and Bradstreet's, and from the figures of compensation of railroad employees gathered by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and finds that since 1902 engineers and conductors have received increases in pay not quite equal to the rise in prices of foodstuffs, but that firemen, switchmen, and other trainmen have had their pay increased somewhat more rapidly than foodstuffs have risen. In the meantime the average ton-mile rate received by the railroads has declined from 8.98 mills in 1902 to 7.56 mills in 1909. Of course, this comparison of average ton-mile rates would be misleading if there had come, between 1902 and 1909, any disproportionate increase in the volume of low-class freight. But the report in 1905 of Prof. H. C. Adams to the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce showed that during five years a slight increase had come in the percentage of high-class freight to the whole, and that the volume of traffic had increased most largely in the South and West, where rates are relatively high. It looks, therefore, as if the contention of the railroads,—that their general level of rates is lower than formerly, while everything else is higher priced,—is true. The greater density and volume of traffic is allowing them, in spite of increasing costs and declining rates, to show fair earnings. If they are to continue to show fair earnings, they say, their rates must go up or their labor charge must not be increased.

Our Waning Trade Balance

Last month, the first time for a February in fifteen years, our commerce showed an actual excess of imports over exports. This unusual adverse trade balance was brought about by a falling off of exports to the smallest February total since 1905 and by an increase in imports to the largest total ever recorded for the second month of the year. For the eight completed months of the current fiscal year the excess of exports shows only 189 million dollars, against 341 million for 1909 and 515 million in 1908. Not since 1896 have the first eight months of the year shown so small a trade balance in our favor. The result is due not so much to a paucity of exports,—for these stand, in the period mentioned, at near the highest figure on record, —as to an unprecedented volume of imports. The latter total, for the eight months, 1,021 million dollars; 933 million dollars in 1907 was the highest figure until this year. An analysis of the most important articles that make up our commerce shows that while our exports as a whole have increased, there is a significant falling off in the amount of agricultural products sent to foreign countries. While the value of these was 726 million dollars in the first eight months of 1908, it had fallen to 626 million dollars for the same period of 1909, and is now reported as only 594 million dollars for 1910. This serious decrease in the quantities of wheat, corn, and cattle that the United States is able to sell to foreign countries is obviously due to the high prices now quoted in this country for staple commodities. The phenomenon suggests that natural laws may soon take a hand in scaling down the much discussed "cost of living." If visible supplies of grain in the barns of farmers are, as is reported, of record volume, and if prices have risen so high with us that Europe will not buy our farm products, a continuance of good crops ought to affect the serious and fundamental factor in the cost of living,—the high prices of foodstuffs.

Are We to Import Foodstuffs?

In the meantime, current writers on economics are saying that the United States has lost her position as one of the important granaries of the world, that within a generation we shall be forced to import grain and cattle to feed our people, and that the only hope left to us to

maintain a favorable trade balance is to sell our manufactured products abroad in sufficient quantities to make up for the declining agricultural exports. A more immediate question concerns the probability that gold will have to be sent abroad from this country, and the difficulty of finding the gold for that purpose. To be sure, there is still a balance in our favor, as respects exports and imports, of $189,000,000 for the first two-thirds of the current year; but there are offsetting items, such as interest payments on our securities held abroad, tourist credits, and foreign freight, which make it necessary that we should have an excess of something like $500,000,000 before there is a working trade balance in our favor. It is to be said, however, that figures of exports and imports have a way of changing in volume with great suddenness, and the present rapid decrease of our favorable trade balance may suddenly cease, owing to smaller imports of luxuries and to urgent demands by Europe for cotton and other farm products with the coming of lower prices, or of special foreign needs. Cotton is what concerns England most.

Senator Root and the Income Tax

A letter from Senator Root in support of the pending income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution was read in the New York Legislature on the last day of February, just as the matter was coming to a final vote in the legislatures of several other States. Governor Hughes having opposed in a special message the ratification of the amendment, Senator Root challenged the interpretation put upon the language of the amendment by the Governor, maintaining that the phrase, "from whatever source derived," as applied in the amendment to incomes subject to taxation, instead of enlarging the taxing power of the federal Government to include State and municipal bonds, as construed by Governor Hughes, really implies only that Congress may lay and collect such a tax upon any kind of income without apportionment among the several States and without regard to any census or enumeration. In other words, the amendment makes no change whatever beyond doing away with the rule that the tax must be apportioned. Mr. Root believes that it should be adopted in order that the National Government may be provided with adequate resources in times of need, and his argument has been re-enforced by those of certain economists,—notably Professor Seligman of Columbia,—who hold that court decisions must take into account the changing economic conditions and necessities of the nation. Meanwhile, the amendment had been ratified by the South Carolina Legislature in February, and early in March the legislatures of Illinois and Oklahoma passed resolutions of ratification. Virginia and Kentucky, on the other hand, true to their "strict-construction" traditions, rejected the amendment. Thus far in the campaign the only "doubtful" State won for the amendment is Illinois.

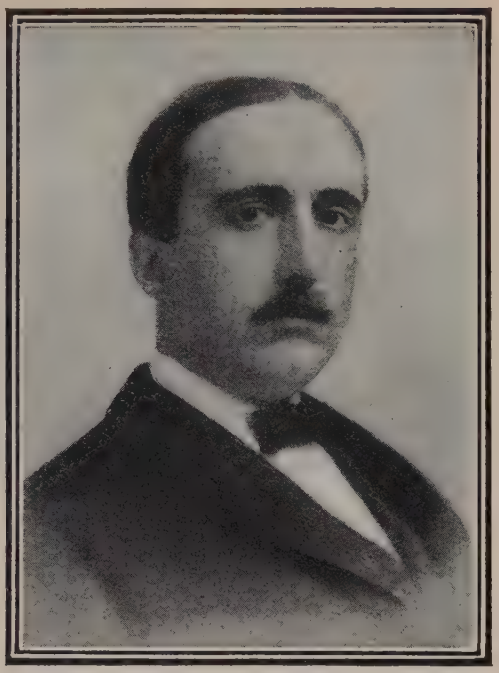
War Against the White Plague

New York State's anti-tuberculosis fight, so well described by Mr. Kingsbury on page 432 of this REVIEW, received a fresh impetus from the conference of local committees held at Albany on March 19 and addressed by President Taft, Governor Hughes, Dr. Simon Flexner, director of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research; Mr. Robert W. de Forest, of the Sage Foundation, and Mr. Homer Folks, the organizer of the New York movement. During the past two and a half years the number of State hospital beds for the treatment of consumption has been doubled and a beginning has been made in the provision of county and city hospital facilities. Five years hence, if the sixty local committees are successful in carrying out the program that has been mapped out for them, there will not be a single case of uncared-for tuberculosis in the State. It is not too much to hope that by 1920 the white plague will have been practically exterminated from Buffalo to Montauk Point. The educational campaign meanwhile goes on apace throughout the country. Late in February South Carolina held a conference on public health as a closing feature of the exhibition given by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, which for the past three years has been visiting three of the larger cities in each of the Southern States. In March the tuberculosis fighters of North Carolina met at Greensboro in connection with the exhibition. It can no longer be said that the South is not alive to this question.

Beef Packers Indicted

The meat boycott, entered on enthusiastically in Cleveland and other cities during the month of February, ceased to exist at the expiration of the sixty-day period of abstinence, about the middle of March. How faithfully the pledges of abstinence were kept and what the

L. F. SWIFT



J. OGDEN ARMOUR

TWO OF THE INDICTED CHICAGO PACKERS

total effect of the boycott was are matters for conjecture. But it may safely be said that the movement had some beneficial results, in that it focused attention on the high prices of foodstuffs and influenced a number of important investigations. The price of meat, against which the boycott was directed, does not seem to have been permanently affected; for whereas beef cattle were quoted at about six cents a pound wholesale when the "meat strike" began, the price was seven to seven and a half cents when the boycott ended. The price of hogs has likewise risen materially in this period. While the popular movement against the packers and their business has subsided, as was naturally to be expected, the judicial inquiries into these matters have proceeded and produced some results. The federal grand jury at Chicago, which had been engaged for eight weeks in an exhaustive investigation of the business of the packing companies, returned indictments on March 21 against the National Packing Company, sometimes termed the "Beef Trust," and ten subsidiary concerns. The indictments charge a violation of the Sherman anti-trust law. A bill in equity for the dissolution of the alleged combination, naming the Armour, Morris, Swift, and other companies, and a number of individuals, was also filed by United States District-Attorney Sims. The Government officials apparently regard the National Packing Company as the instrument by which the packers have sought to evade the anti-trust law and perfect their control of the beef business. It is believed that if the National Company can be dissolved, the alleged evils of the combination may be eliminated. Late in February a grand jury in Hudson County, New Jersey, had indicted practically the same companies and twenty-one individual directors, after the collection of a mass of evidence, under the direction of Prosecutor Garven, about the cold storage business. The indictment charged the companies and the individuals with conspiring to control the supply of meat in order to produce an artificial scarcity and thus increase prices. Should this turn out to be the case, the New Jersey evidence may be placed at the disposal of the Government for use in its proceedings against the packers. District-Attorney Whitman, of New York County, has also been given access to this evidence with a view to the consideration of the cold storage business by a New York grand jury.

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THE SENATE COMMITTEE THAT IS INVESTIGATING THE HIGH PRICES OF FOODSTUFFS

Left to right: Senator Jas. P. Clark, Arkansas; Senator Jos. F. Johnson, Alabama; Senator Reed Smoot, Utah; Senator Henry C. Lodge, Massachusetts; Senator Jacob H. Gallinger, New Hampshire; Senator Coe I. Crawford, South Dakota; Senator P. F. McCumber, North Dakota; Senator F. M. Simmons, North Carolina

Still, the "Cost of Living"

Meanwhile, the special committee of the Senate appointed to inquire into the cost of living has continued its sessions and heard much testimony. Among other things, the committee has been repeatedly assured that the packers are not to blame for the high prices, but that the producers are reaping the bulk of the profit. One interesting statement made to the committee was to the effect that the federal meat inspection law was an important factor in increasing the price of meat, for the reason that the cost of the cattle condemned by the government inspectors has been added to the price of the good meat sold. Statistics recently compiled by the Department of Commerce and Labor show that meat prices have advanced in all the principal producing and consuming sections of the world. Fresh meats have advanced less than the salted and preserved goods. This is supposed to be due to reductions effected in the cost of chilling and transporting fresh meats, and to the increased supply in European markets owing to the growth of the system of distribution. The greater advance noted in the prices of fresh mutton over those of fresh beef is said to be due in part to the comparatively slow growth in the world's supply of sheep and the consequent higher price of wool. The interest taken by the Department of Agriculture in the question of reducing the cost of living is shown in the preparation by the Department of a manual entitled "Economic Use of Meats in the Home." This book shows how to prepare the cheaper cuts of meat, and gives a variety of recipes and other information about foodstuffs. Copies of it may be obtained free by applying to the Secretary of Agriculture.

Now for the Census

On the fifteenth day of April, that is to say, about two weeks after this magazine reaches most of its readers, Uncle Sam's army of 65,000 enumerators will begin to gather statistics for the thirteenth federal census. So quietly has this army been mustered into service that few have been made aware of its existence. Yet its recruits have been enrolled and drilling for many weeks. They will soon invade every city, village, and populated area in the country. In the cities and large towns they are required to complete the population schedules within two weeks, and in the rural districts within thirty days. In some European countries the decennial counting of heads is done more expeditiously, but nowhere are the census schedules so elaborate. Our people are less wonted than the subjects of monarchies to governmental inquisition of any form and once every decade they have to be schooled to submit to a general quizzing at the hands of men chosen from among themselves. The counting of the people is only a part of the work intrusted to the census enumerators. Of the 65,000 enumerators employed on this census, 45,000

will have charge of the agricultural schedules covering the facts of farm operation and equipment. This information will be gathered with regard to the calendar year 1909, so far as farm operations are concerned, and the listing of farm equipment will be made as of April 15, 1910. The census of manufactures, mines, and quarries covers the calendar year 1909 only, and 1800 special agents for the gathering of these statistics have been at work since the beginning of the current year.

A Highly Specialized Job

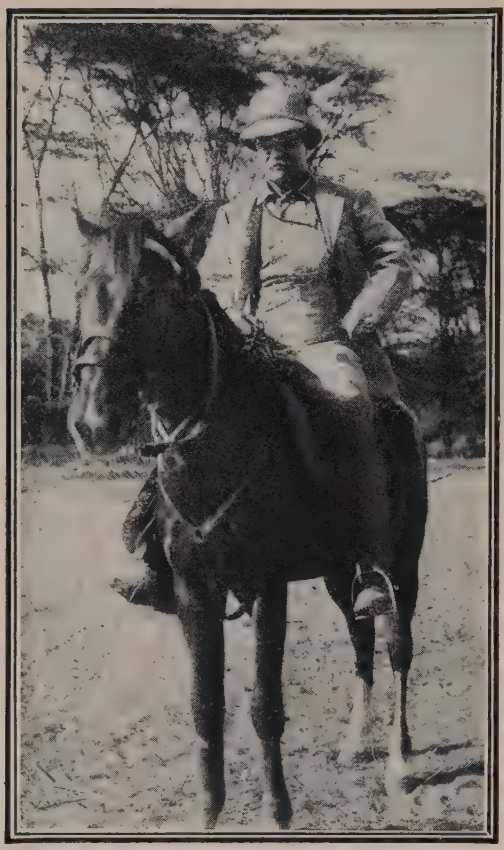
In organizing the present census inquiry more attention than ever before has been given to the matter of perfecting the schedules and weighing each question with reference to its precise significance and scientific value. A group of trained investigators familiar with the various branches of expert knowledge which the census will cover was engaged during the greater part of last summer in discussing and advising regarding these questions. Their criticism should prove of great value in the final results, which will show in the information elicited by the inquiries. After the enumerators and special agents have succeeded in obtaining answers to the questions, the enormous labor of tabulating and classifying these answers will be begun in the Census Office at Washington. Much of this labor is now performed by machines, each of which is capable of making about 25,000 tabulations a day. The Census Bureau has installed its own punching and tabulating machines, thereby effecting great money saving to the Government. It is stated that the first announcement of tabulation by cities will be made about June 1. Others will follow from day to day until about August 15, when the count of the principal cities will probably be completed. There will probably be no statement of the details by States and Territories before September 1. A verified statement of the entire enumeration of the country may be made public during the month of September.

Real Progress in Conservation

A statement issued by the Geological Survey last month shows that the Government's conservation work for the preceding year included many important investigations relating to coal, oil, and phosphate deposits, and to water-power sites on the public domain. Coal-land withdrawals cover 7,675,000 acres not previously withdrawn. As explained in Mr. Mitchell's article contributed to our February number, the new regulations of the Interior Department for the classifying of coal lands have materially increased the sale price of these lands, besides fixing more definitely the standards of coal classification. Thus, for example, under the old regulation in eight widely separated townships, the total area classed as coal lands was 66,320 acres, and the sale price was $288,600, whereas under the new regulation the area in the same eight townships is 126,663 acres and the sale price is $15,777,668,—an increase in area of over 100 per cent. and in price of over 600 per cent. In the matter of public water-power site withdrawals also a great advance was made during the year. On March 4, 1909, such withdrawals were in force covering vacant public lands on 29 rivers in 9 States. New withdrawals have been made during the year along 97 rivers covering land not already withdrawn, and increasing the total number of States to 11. These power-site withdrawals now cover about 13,000 acres of vacant public lands and 200,000 acres of other lands.

Postal Savings Banks

The Senate passed the Administration's bill for a postal savings-bank system on March 5, after amending it so as to permit the withdrawal of the deposits from the local banks in any exigency involving the credit of the National Government, and the investment of the funds so withdrawn in securities bearing interest at not less than 2¼ per cent. During the debate in committee of the whole the bill's constitutionality was attacked by Senators Bailey and Rayner, but in the final stages of the discussion the issue was joined between those Senators who favored the granting of broad discretion to the Board of Trustees in the matter of withdrawing the deposits from the banks and those who, like Senator Cummins, were afraid that any bond-investment provision would tend to send the accumulations of the people into channels which lead directly away from the homes and neighborhoods of the savers to the country's money centers, where financial congestion is already an evil. Senator Root advocated with much force the bond-investment proposition, which was adopted after a spirited argument. The bill on final passage in the Senate commanded every Republican vote,—something that has not occurred for several years in the case of any important measure.



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EX-PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT ON HIS FAVORITE HORSE
(Photographed during his African trip)

Mr. Roosevelt Leaves Africa

The great Smithsonian expedition to Africa, headed by ex-President Roosevelt, has come to a successful end. It was a fortunate affair, in that its members came through it in safety, and its results were far greater, as respects the National Museum at Washington, than any one had anticipated. Mr. Roosevelt's vigorous and acquisitive mind was occupied not merely with the scientific or sportsman-like aspects of animal life in Africa but also with everything else of human interest. The narrative of his hunting experiences has now for some months past been appearing in monthly installments in *Scribner's Magazine*, and meanwhile he has been preparing the addresses that he is soon to give at Berlin, Paris, Oxford, and other European capitals. A large reception committee has been officially appointed to take charge of arrangements for welcoming him home in June. Many newspaper men from this country, as well as from Europe, went to Khartum to see him as he brought to an end his leadership of a scientific expedition and joined Mrs. Roosevelt and his daughter in their program of several months of European visiting and travel.

And Begins His Lecture Tour of Europe

A few days after this issue of the REVIEW reaches its readers the ex-President will be again on European soil after nearly a year's absence. On April 2 he is due at Naples and the following day at Rome, where he will be given an almost royal welcome by the Italian monarchs. On the 15th of the present month he will be in the Austrian capital. According to the program as now laid down, Paris will be reached on the 21st. A week will be spent in that city, during which the ex-President will deliver at least one lecture in French before the Sorbonne. From Paris his journey will take him to Brussels and The Hague, bringing him to Christiania on the 3d, where he will deliver an important lecture before the University in the Norwegian capital. A short visit will be paid to Stockholm, and Mr. Roosevelt and his party will reach Berlin on May 9. He will deliver at the University of Berlin at least one address in Ger-

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THE ROOSEVELT BUST
(To be placed in the Vice-Presidential gallery in the Capitol at Washington)

man. It is expected that the British metropolis will be reached on May 16, where the Roosevelt party will remain for nearly a month, the return journey to the United States beginning some time before the middle of June. The trip from Khartum down the Nile to Alexandria, where ship was taken for Naples, was thoroughly enjoyed by Mr. Roosevelt, who found much to praise in the British administration of Egypt. He visited the battlefield of Omdurman, inspected the great dam of Assouan at Luxor, and made several addresses to students at different educational institutions. He steadfastly refused to discuss American politics, but permitted himself to express interest in the welcome which is being planned for him upon his return to the United States.

Canada and Our Tariff Law

With the return to Washington last month of the special tariff commission from its fruitless visit to Ottawa the administration of President Taft found itself confronted with one of the gravest and most vexatious problems it had yet encountered in its foreign relations. This special commission consisted of Mr. John G. Foster, American Consul-General at Ottawa, as chairman; Prof. Henry C. Emory, chairman of the Tariff Board of the Treasury Department, and Mr. Charles M. Pepper, the commercial expert of the Bureau of Trade Relations in the State Department. The commission had been sent to the Canadian capital to secure from the Dominion Government "most favored nation" treatment in return for the minimum rates of the Payne-Aldrich tariff. The commission, however, received practically no encouragement. It asked the removal of the Canadian export duties on pulp-wood from the crown lands and the general low rates which the Dominion has recently accorded to French imports, for which France has given similar favors. In return for the desired concessions, the commission could offer to Canada only the suspension of the very highest rates of the Payne-Aldrich tariff by special Presidential proclamation. For a number of years the Laurier administration in Canada perseveringly sought tariff concessions at the hands of the American Government and offered favors, but without result. Then Canada began to realize the strength of her position, made possible by her immense natural resources, and turned to other countries for more favorable tariff relations.

The Dominion's Trade with Europe

After some years of parleying the Canadian discrimination against German goods was brought to an end by an agreement reached in February last, in accordance with which Germany now extends to Canadian products her minimum rates. Early last month a Franco-Canadian trade treaty was concluded, giving Canadian trade products even better treatment in the French markets than they have in Germany. Because of Great Britain's "favored nation" treaties these favorable rates, given by Canada to France, are now automatically extended to thirteen other nations, leaving the United States the only country of the first rank still subject to higher rates. According to the regular tariff scheme of Great Britain and her colonies, Canada's lowest rate is extended to the mother country. These favorable concessions have been regarded in some high tariff quarters in this country as constituting "undue discrimination" against the United States, and it was expected that if no agreement were reached before the end of last month the President would proclaim the maximum rates of the Payne-Aldrich tariff against all dutiable Canadian imports.

Canada's Point of View

The Canadian reply to these contentions is that, at the present time, the United States actually levies a minimum tax of 45 per cent. on Canadian goods; that this percentage is the same as that officially published in 1908 before the promised "downward revision" of the Payne-Aldrich law; that the new American tariff, the minimum rates of which are "everywhere in the United States regarded as extortionate," has established, for the first time in history, a maximum tariff raising the average tax to 70 per cent., and that it is not certain from the wording of the law whether the extra tax of 25 per cent. would not be imposed on articles now on the free list. Canada, therefore, to escape the Payne-Aldrich tariff, goes elsewhere for her markets. "We are not willing" (we quote the Toronto *Globe*) "to give to the United States without corresponding favors most of the advantages which France has bought with valuable concessions." "All the facts exonerate Canada," says the *Globe* further, "from the charge of unfair treatment of her neighbor . . . they show that the facts are on our side, and, moreover, they demonstrate clearly that we have a mightily sustaining power."

THE STRENGTH OF THE POLITICAL PARTIES IN GREAT BRITAIN BEFORE AND AFTER THE RECENT GENERAL ELECTION

(The blackened portions indicate districts carried by the Unionists)

How American Interests Might Suffer

A tariff war between the two countries would bring them as near to a state of commercial non-intercourse as it is possible for two civilized nations to come. Many of our imports from Canada constitute our sole supply of the articles involved. In this class are nickel, wood-pulp for paper, and certain grades of lumber. American paper-makers have large holdings in the Province of Quebec. This supply would be cut off in case of a tariff war, and American paper mills would have to purchase their supplies in Europe. In the last fiscal year we exported to Canada American goods to the value of more than $180,000,000. The Canadian surtax of 33 1-3 per cent., which would be imposed at once in retaliation for the maximum of our own tariff, would be a prohibitive tax upon most dutiable American goods, and Canadian merchants would find that they could buy more cheaply from our British, French, and German competitors. Resentment against what are termed American exactions has been increasing lately, and Dr. Fernow,—now known as "the Canadian Gifford Pinchot,"—has stated that he has the backing of most of the newspapers and manufacturers in demanding that Canadian forests be used only by Canadians. Last month, also, the New Brunswick Legislature unanimously passed a resolution demanding that all pulp-wood cut on the crown lands of New Brunswick should be manufactured into paper within the province limits. Much was hoped from the conference which took place at Albany on March 20 between President Taft, Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada, and Mr. W. S. Fielding, Canadian Minister of Finance. While no definite conclusion was reached on this occasion, it was announced that the remaining days of March would be devoted to "friendly negotiations."

End of the Revolution in Nicaragua

Early last month it became evident that the fortune of war in Nicaragua had turned from the revolutionists to the government forces. Several crushing defeats of the armies of General Estrada followed one another quickly, and soon it was plain that the revolution had been completely put down. Estrada offered peace to the government, asking Dr. Madriz, who had been elected President to succeed Zelaya, to consent to a general election under the constitution and the guarantee of fairness by the United States Government. Our State Department, however, declined to accede to Estrada's request, and President Madriz refused even to consider the proposal. Of course, unless both factions ask

for intervention, the United States Government will do nothing. The reported withdrawal, last month, of our warships and marines from Nicaraguan waters has been interpreted, in certain quarters, as a "diplomatic backdown." Of course it is nothing of the kind; it is really only the cautiousness of the State Department in proceeding in the real interests of the people of Nicaragua and all Central America. It is apparently being demonstrated that Dr. Madriz is a careful, safe man who represents the wishes of the people of the country. The American State Department, however, wishes to be more certain of this, and to know whether he is his own man, or, as has been charged, only the puppet of Zelaya. Estrada may maintain for some months a guerrilla warfare, but it is apparent that the insurrection is crushed. South American diplomats do not take a very deep interest in the matter, as they all apparently have confidence in the fairness and good intentions of the United States Government. They are, however, so far as the expression of their opinion indicates, very anxious to have some order brought about in Central America, so that these smaller republics may not cast reproach upon the name Latin-American.

South-American Politics

The Brazilian general election, held late in February, resulted in the choice, by a large majority, of Marshal Hermes Fonseca for President. Marshal Fonseca is a conservative in politics, a warm friend of the United States, and a life-long advocate of the policy of making Brazil a real naval power. In Argentina the Presidential election took place on March 13. Dr. Roque Saens Pena was elected. An election will be held in Colombia on the third of the present month, for a Constitutional Assembly to meet at Bogota on May 15 to revise the constitution. One month later the national Congress will assemble for the purpose of electing a new President to succeed Dr. Gonzales-Valencia. A change of chief magistrate in Panama was brought about last month. Dr. Carlos A. Mendoza, first Vice-President, succeeded the late President Obaldia.

Opening the British Parliament

When the new British Parliament was formally opened on February 21 by King Edward and Queen Alexandra in person it was expected that some definite statement would be made, either in the speech from the throne or in the opening address of the Premier as to the program for the session. The precarious position of the Ministry, dependent as it is upon the rather unpredictable temper of its radical allies, the Laborites and the Irish Nationalists, had been made even worse by the hesitancy of the Premier in his after-election utterances. The speech from the throne was awaited with unusual interest. Besides the usual perfunctory references to foreign and imperial affairs, King Edward's address contained two paragraphs of first-rate importance. He said:

> Recent experience has disclosed serious difficulties due to recurring differences of strong opinion between the two branches of the Legislature. Proposals will be laid before you with all convenient speed to define the relations between the houses of Parliament so as to secure the undivided authority of the House of Commons over finance and its predominance in legislation.

THE FORMAL OPENING CEREMONY OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

(Leaders of the government and the opposition walking together; the Speaker, accompanied by the Black Rod, and followed by the "faithful Commons," on his way to the House of Lords)

(From the *Illustrated London News*)

Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

JOHN BURNS READY FOR THE KING'S LEVEE

These measures, in the opinion of my advisers, should provide that this house should be so constituted and empowered as to exercise impartially in regard to proposed legislation the functions of initiation, of revision, and, subject to proper safeguards, of delay.

The words "this house" in the second paragraph indicate the House of Lords, since the King was speaking to the members of the Commons who had been summoned to the Chamber of Peers in accordance with immemorial custom to hear the speech.

King Edward and His Premier

In inserting the words "in the opinion of my advisers," King Edward VII. emphasized the independence of the Crown in the British constitutional system. For the first time in modern British political history the Sovereign has declined to identify himself with the policy of his Ministers. King Edward virtually told his Cabinet and the country as well that he is a strictly constitutional monarch, but that if the Ministers propose a fundamental change in the constitution itself he must have more than the dictation of one branch of the Legislature to commit him to such a course. On another page this month Mr. Stead presents a study of the dominant position held by England's "Sovereign Lord and King" in the present constitutional crisis.

Mr Asquith's Attitude

Mr. Asquith's speech explaining his policy was clear, but depressing, to his followers and the country. He admitted that before making his ante-election speeches he had received no guarantees as to what the King would do. Mr. Asquith explained further that the question of the veto power of the House of Lords and the Lloyd-George budget would be pushed through the session simultaneously. He announced that votes would be taken immediately to authorize certain indispensable funds for supplies. Then resolutions setting forth the ministerial measure for dealing with the House of Lords would be brought forward, and then an attempt would be made to force the budget through the House before the spring recess. "With the Lords' resolution, so also with the budget,—we stand or fall by them both." It was decided that having transacted routine business and obtained the necessary funds, the House would adjourn from March 24-29.

WILL THE LORDS REFORM THEMSELVES?

PEER: "Well, if I've *got* to be doctored, I should really much prefer this little mixture of my own"

From *Punch* (London)

THE LABOR PARTY MEMBERS OF THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

The Liberal Plan for the Lords

In a campaign speech in Scotland before the balloting began Mr. Asquith declared, "We are not going to improve the House of Lords at all; what we are going to do is to deprive the House of Lords of its veto." According to dispatches received from London late last month, Mr. Asquith's plan for reforming the Lords contemplates making that body a second chamber, somewhat on the plan of our own Senate, with 240 members (at present there are 615), elected for a long term by the present Parliamentary voters, chosen directly from a large group of the present constituencies. Mr. Asquith's proposed second chamber would have only "powers of delay," not of veto. If it differed with the Commons, the differences must be settled in joint session. In his proposal for modifying the structure of the upper house, which Mr. Asquith promised to introduce in the Commons on March 29, there was to be a plan for shortening the duration of future parliamentary sessions which are now considered cumbersomely long.

Will the Lords Reform Themselves?

Several important addresses by eminent Peers, made in open Parliament, have indicated the desire of the Lords to reform themselves. In a masterful address on March 14 former Premier Rosebery reviewed the entire history of the upper house, declared that "for a long time there had been in the House of Lords a body of opinion profoundly conscious of the imperfection in its structure." "If you do not reform yourselves," he declared, "radical and unwise action will be taken by the other house and perhaps supported by the electorate." Lord Rosebery's plan, which, it is understood, has the indorsement of a strong minority of the Peers, was embodied in the following resolution which the Lords referred to an investigating committee:

(1) That a strong and efficient second chamber is not merely an integral part of the British Constitution, but is necessary to the well-being of the State and the balance of Parliament. (2) That a second chamber can best be obtained by reforming and reconstituting the House of Lords. (3) That a necessary preliminary to such reform and reconstitution is the acceptance of the principle that possession of a peerage shall no longer in itself give the right to sit and vote in the House of Lords.

Lord Lansdowne, in a vigorous speech following Lord Rosebery, admitted that "there is a House of Lords question," but demanded deliberate, joint action in settling "a problem of such national gravity."

The London County Council

While the Unionists in England are denouncing the Lloyd-George budget and most of the other Liberal party doctrines as "socialistic," conservative journals and public speakers have been admitting that it will be impossible in the future to ever undo the great bulk of the public reform work of the past Parliamentary session. The so-called socialistic ideas, those that stand for governmental, or rather united public measures for the relief of general want and distress, have obtained a hold on the English public mind that will not soon, if ever, be loosened. This is illustrated by the gains made by the progressive

From the *Illustrated London News*

MR. CHAMBERLAIN TAKING THE OATH IN THE COMMONS

(Mr. Chamberlain's entry into the House of Commons was unexpected. The member for West Birmingham came into the House, leaning on the arm of Mr. Austen Chamberlain, his son, as the first member to be returned. While the oath was being read Mr. Austen Chamberlain wrote his father's name in the roll of Parliament. Then the pen was placed in Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's left hand, and he touched the signature, thus attesting its validity and "signing" the roll by making his mark. The incident called forth many sympathetic remarks, for the chief champion of Tariff Reform has not been in the House since July, 1906)

party in the recent London County Council election, which was held on March 5. The results of these, although virtually a deadlock similar to that of the Imperial Parliament, show a great gain for the Progressives. The parties are now almost exactly equal in numbers. The London County Council was established in 1889, and for eighteen years was dominated by the Progressives, who did much for the British metropolis. They secured better housing for London, betterment of transportation service, fairer weights and measures, more parks, easier conditions and better wages for labor, and increased fire protection. In 1907 came the reaction and the so-called Moderates, or Municipal Reformers, triumphed at the polls after a campaign the war cry of which was "Down with Socialism." At the election last month the Progressives gained twenty-one seats.

Growth of the Tariff Reform Idea

In moving the official opposition amendment to the address in reply to the King's speech (on February 24) Mr. Austen Chamberlain raised the fiscal question generally. The amendment was defeated, but by a much smaller majority than similar amendments have been defeated at the assembling of the two preceding parliaments. Mr. Chamberlain quoted Chancellor Lloyd-George's figures of $142,000,000 as the loss occasioned by the failure of the budget in the last session of Parliament. Financial security would be obtained only, he contended, by the triumph of "Tariff Reform." The tariff movement in England, that is, the agitation for a protective tariff, has just about closed its first decade of agitation. Sentiment, as between the mother country and her colonies, seems to be, on the whole, weakening. In 1908 Canada with Newfoundland and Australia and New Zealand sent their Premiers to London with the offer of reciprocity ("Preference," as it is known in England), and the plea that the mother land would greatly strengthen her position with the colonies by availing herself of this offer. The deputations were wined and dined and turned away unsatisfied. Since then other nations have been extending their trade with Britain's colonies, often to the injury of "home trade."

Mr. Chamberlain's Leadership

The movement for Tariff Reform has grown in importance and influence chiefly through the influence of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. As long as he was the dominant figure, the movement waxed strongly and steadily gathered adherents. In 1906, however, illness removed Mr. Chamberlain from active participation in British politics. Then the Tariff Reform propaganda looked to Mr. Arthur Balfour for leadership. While favoring a change leading toward some sort of tariff reform, Mr. Balfour has never been persuaded to enunciate any positive views on the subject. Indeed, it has seemed as though he were using the resources of his official position, first as Premier, and now as leader of the opposition in the house, to block the progress of the tariff reform idea. Without any vigorous leadership the protective tariff propaganda has languished, although during the past two or three years it has apparently been gaining a good many adherents. It was by rather a dramatic coincidence that, just as the Association of

Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom in session in London late in February was adopting resolutions in favor of "tariff reform and colonial preference," Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, an aged man, broken in health and almost blind, but the first member returned to the new Parliament, was signing his name to the roll of the House of Commons by the pathetic method of making his mark after his signature had been affixed by his son Austen.

The Irish and the Budget

There can be no doubt of the fact that Mr. Asquith's government has been, since the results of the election were announced, dependent for its very existence upon the votes of the Irish Nationalists. Mr. John Redmond has been virtual dictator of the course of the Liberal government since the opening of Parliament. Both the Liberal and Labor parties are agreed upon the importance of passing a budget at the earliest possible moment. The Irish, however, are not satisfied with the financial measure drawn by Mr. Lloyd-George, claiming that the duties therein provided for would impose unjust burdens upon Ireland. Therefore, while compelled to appease the Irish members by such an attitude toward the House of Lords as would permit the early introduction of a Home Rule bill, Mr. Asquith has also been under the necessity of placating Mr. Redmond and his followers in the matter of the terms of the financial measure. All of the Irish are agreed in opposing the budget, as it originally passed the Commons, Mr. O'Brien's ten Independents joining with the Redmondites in denouncing it. The Irish Nationalist leader has taken advantage of a very much mixed situation in British politics to acquire the balance of power in Parliament. This position of advantage he naturally intends to use for the benefit of his constituents. In a speech acknowledging the receipt of large contributions from Irishmen in the United States toward the Home Rule campaign last month Mr. Redmond predicted that there will be another general election within a few weeks.

Financial Scandal in France

An unexpected issue has arisen to complicate the national election campaign in France, balloting for which begins on the 24th day of the present month. The almost open warfare which has continued between Church and State since 1901 has been embittered during the past few months by the attacks of various Catholic church officials upon the Ministry of Education for withdrawing from the schools old textbooks and substituting others more in conformity with the non-religious character of the government. Early last month the commission of the French Senate, headed by the former Premier, Combes, which had been appointed to investigate the administration of the property of the churches, convents, and schools which had been expropriated by the State, made its report. The document disclosed an almost incredible amount of corruption and inefficiency. The arrest of a number of persons connected with the settlement of the church affairs followed. Among these was one M. Duez, who confessed to a shortage in his accounts of more than $1,000,000. Duez had been government receiver for thirteen of the congregations or ecclesiastical organizations which had forfeited their property according to the law of 1901. He confessed to have used the funds resulting from the liquidation of this property for private speculation. Other confessions to the same general effect showed a vast amount of collusion between government officials and lawyers and unlimited graft.

The Ministry Sustained

In the Chamber of Deputies M. Jaurés, the socialist leader, brought up the matter and made a violent attack on the government. Conservatives also condemned the Ministry. Premier Briand, however, replied that a "rigid" and "pitiless" investigation would be made and no one would be spared. In a test vote, on March 15, in the Chamber, following a long debate on the scandal, a resolution condemning in the severest terms the corruption and mismanagement of the administration, but expressing confidence in the government's promise to investigate fearlessly and punish the guilty, was passed by a large majority. It is interesting to note in passing that the apprehensions of an epidemic following the subsidence of the floods in Paris have proved unfounded. Thanks to the precautions and rescue work undertaken by the government and private enterprise, the number of deaths in Paris during the weeks following the falling of the waters of the Seine was actually less than normal. The official reports of the flood damage in eighteen departments show a direct loss of $14,600,000, $10,000,000 of which represents the damage to Paris.

COUNT VON SCHWERIN-LÖWITZ, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF THE GERMAN REICHSTAG

Prussia's Suffrage Troubles

All Germany, it would seem, has been stirred over the struggle for franchise reform in Prussia. As we have already pointed out in these pages, the electoral law under which Prussian citizens have voted for the past two generations is antiquated and cumbersome. It gives unfair advantages to the bureaucratic and property classes. Moreover, the voting for membership in the Prussian Diet has been indirect, although the direct method has obtained for membership in the Imperial Parliament, the Reichstag. The restrictions have been bitterly opposed by the radical and progressive elements, and the agitation for reform has been going on for years. In February Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, the Chancellor, acting in his capacity as Prussian Minister of State, brought in a so-called reform bill embodying the government's reply to the demands of the liberals and radicals. This measure substitutes direct for indirect suffrage, retaining, however, the three-class voting system, whereby electors are graded according to the amount of taxes they pay, although officers, officials, and other educated voters are placed in the first or second electoral classes irrespective of the amount of their taxes.

Rioting Against an Unpopular Law

This measure was so unsatisfactory that popular demonstrations, amounting to serious riots in some places, occurred all over the empire, chiefly in Berlin. The Socialists engineered a vast demonstration in the capital on Sunday, March 6. In the city alone more than 100,000 persons took part in the great open-air demonstration against the suffrage bill. Forbidden by the police to parade, they nevertheless, to the number of 100,000, took a "demonstrative stroll" through two of the parks, and the police were powerless to prevent. Later, losing their nerve, the officers of the law attacked a peaceful crowd with sabers, seriously wounding many. More than 300 persons were injured in different parts of the country by the police during the demonstrations. Other riots occurred on March 18, which was the anniversary of the Berlin "revolution" of 1848. Great indignation was aroused, the press bitterly attacking the Chancellor, who was also "baited" in the Reichstag.

The Government Unyielding

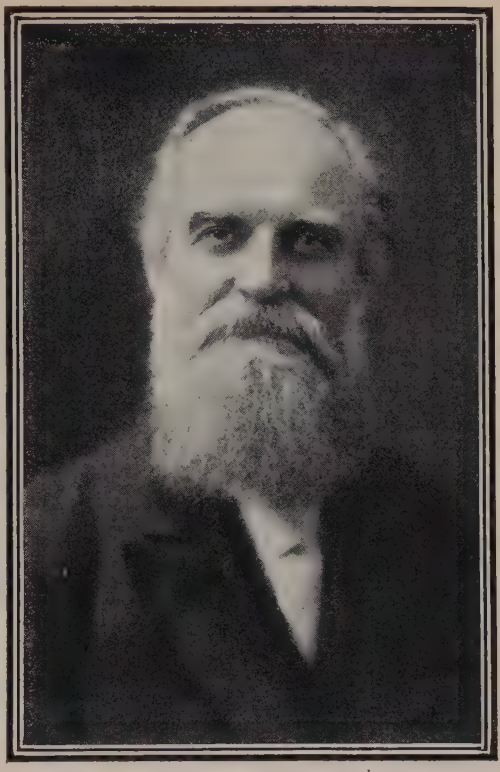
It is significant of the submissive character of the German voter that the Chancellor did not deign to reply further than to emphatically reject the socialist and radical demands for reform. Furthermore, on March 16, the conservative votes behind the government in the Diet

OLD MOTHER GERMANIA HAD BETTER WATCH OUT OR SHE WILL BE WALLED IN BY HOSTILE TARIFFS.
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

passed the measure without essential changes. We quote German press opinion on this measure on another page. The Imperial Parliament has been showing a slightly different temper. On March 15 a motion by one of the Socialist members demanding the introduction of a bill making the Chancellor responsible to the Reichstag for all his official acts was adopted by a small majority. Late in February Count zu Stolberg-Wernigerode, President of the Reichstag since 1907, died. His successor, appointed early in March, is Hans Graf von Schwerin-Löwitz, a lifelong member of the Conservative party.

Germans and Americans in Trade and Art

There is becoming evident some considerable apprehension among German merchants and manufacturers as to the rivalry of our business men in the international market. More than one speaker in the Reichstag has openly denounced the Payne-Aldrich tariff as unfair to Germany. Some popular interest was evinced in the proposition made last year for an American exposition to be held in Berlin during the coming summer. American products were to be exhibited and a number of American firms were invited to make displays. Late in February Herr Delbrück, Minister of the Interior, in a speech in Parliament, announced that the German Government had given "no moral or financial support" to the exhibit. Later this word "moral" was declared to be a mistake for "official." The incident, however, discouraged the American committee, when further the German Chambers of Commerce decided to boycott the proposed exhibit. Therefore the American Commission, at the head of which was Mr. Herman A. Metz, former Comptroller of New York City, suggested the postponement of the exhibition until the summer of 1911, and that the character of the enterprise be changed from a strictly American affair to a German-American one. To this the German committee has agreed. Following the announcement made by Dr. Paul Schwartz, editor of *Petroleum,* a German trade paper, upon his arrival in this country in February, that the German Government intends to start a monopoly to drive out the Standard Oil Company, came the news that several German manufacturing concerns had captured big contracts for the construction of industrial works in this country, which included the building of coke ovens in Pennsylvania and turbines for Niagara Falls power plants.



NICHOLAS TCHAIKOVSKI, THE AGED PATRIOT-REVOLUTIONIST WHO HAS BEEN ACQUITTED BY A RUSSIAN COURT

Finally, an exhibit of American art in Berlin, beginning on March 16, in conjunction with the Royal Academy show, has been influential in calling the attention of the continent to American progress in painting.

The Acquittal of Tchaikovski

Although not sympathizing with all his aims and ideas, the American people and the civilized world in general regard with sincere satisfaction the acquittal of Nicholas Tchaikovski by the Russian court which tried him on the charges of criminal, revolutionary activity and complicity in plots against the life of the Czar. A revolutionist Tchaikovski undoubtedly is. Indeed, since 1870 he has been known as the "Father of the Russian Revolution." Those who heard him speak during his trip several years ago through the United States, however, have found it impossible to believe this idealistic, patriotic, humane old man of 74 guilty of any of the criminal charges made against him. For two years past Tchaikovski has been imprisoned in the fortress of Schluesselberg, in St. Petersburg, awaiting trial, and many

efforts had been made by influential friends in America and Europe to have the case brought to open trial. Premier Stolypin declined to open the doors of the court-room to the general public or the foreign press representatives; but the world is credibly informed that the trial was conducted with fairness. Tchaikovski's acquittal is to an extent an exoneration of the Russian Government itself, which has so generally been regarded as despotic and arbitrary in its administration of justice. At the same time with Tchaikovski Madam Katharine Breshkovskaya was put on trial on the same charges. The result was the sentence of Madam Breshkovskaya to life exile in Siberia, but not to hard labor. She had admitted being a social revolutionist, but denied most of the other charges of the indictment. An end of the entire Siberian exile system seems to be in sight. Early last month the budget committee of the Duma cut down to less than one-third the usual sum the appropriation to support the system of prisons in Russia's Asiatic domain. In making this reduction the committee declared that the prison system in Siberia, whether for political or criminal offenders, is "thoroughly bad and should be abolished."

Monarchy Popular in Europe

It is an interesting and significant sign of the times, as Mr. Stead points out in his suggestive analysis of King Edward's part in the British crisis, which we present to our readers on another page this month that, while the republican principle is very strong throughout Europe, it is nevertheless true that the monarchial form is still very popular not only in Europe but in the rest of the world as well. Indeed, there is no effective opposition to-day in Europe to the form of monarchy. Reform movements in Russia, Germany, Austria, and Turkey, as well as in the other nations of western Europe are evidently just now looking forward to changing the spirit of existing institutions rather than their forms. When radically republican Norway separated herself from Sweden in 1905 it was the monarchical form of government which was chosen. Radical Young Turkey remains a monarchy, democratic Belgium continues the kingly succession and sternly republican Holland celebrates with almost delirious joy the birth of a princess. Royal personages are very popular in Europe to-day. On the opposite page we present characteristic portraits of European monarchs and their children, the publication of which have provoked great enthusiasm among their peoples. The little German and Spanish heirs apparent have, it would seem, a certainty of eventually attaining to the headship of their peoples in the regular line of kingship.

Ever-Progressing China

Following up its policy of "China for the Chinese," the government at Peking recently determined to make more effective its control over Tibet, the land of the Lamas, the priestly heads of the Buddhist faith. A campaign was begun more than a year ago to secure active Chinese participation in the administration of Tibetan affairs, and, early during the present year, an army of 25,000 Chinese troops, drilled by Japanese officers, and equipped with the most modern munitions of war, entered Lhasa, the capital of Tibet. At the approach of the Chinese the Grand Lama fled into India with his ministers. Immediately an Imperial edict was promulgated deposing this Dalai Lama from the position of the head of the Buddhist faith, accusing him of non-payment of tribute and of "criminal, political intrigue." It is reported to be the Chinese policy to reduce the number of priests in the monastaries in Tibet, to begin the education of the Tibetan people, and to settle Chinese emigrants throughout the country. In the spring of 1904, it will be remembered, a British expedition under Colonel Younghusband fought its way into the holy city of Lhasa. The Lama then fled to Peking to protest against the British invasion of Tibet. By a peculiar contrast, the second time a hostile force enters Tibet, the Lama flees to British possessions (appealing to the Viceroy of India at Calcutta) to protect him against the Chinese. This Tibetan expedition is but one evidence of the militant character of the new China. The attitude of the Celestial Empire toward Russia and Japan in the question of Manchuria and its railroads is another indication of an awakening national consciousness. Most impressive of all, however, is the stand taken by the government at Peking in the matter of national control of the opium trade. Earnest representations have been made to the viceroy at Calcutta and to the British foreign office in London to put an end to the import to China of Indian opium.

Photo by Paul Thompson

THE GERMAN EMPRESS AND HER ONLY DAUGHTER

(The German royal family are very domestic and affectionate. The empress is particularly fond of walking with her daughter, the Princess Victoria Luise. This photograph, taken last month, shows the royal mother and the princess taking a constitutional in the Tiergarten, one of Berlin's most beautiful parks. The princess recently made her debut into royal society)

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KING ALFONSO OF SPAIN TEACHING HIS ELDER SON TO SALUTE THE FLAG

THE GERMAN CROWN PRINCE AND HIS ELDEST SON, PRINCE WILLIAM

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From February 17 to March 20, 1910)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

February 17.—The Senate passes the Diplomatic and Consular appropriation bill and the Cummins bill modifying criminal procedure, with particular reference to bringing indicted corporations to trial.

February 18.—In the House, the administration's Injunction bill is introduced by Mr. Moon (Rep., Pa.); the measure providing for a reorganization of the Post-Office Department is introduced by Mr. Weeks (Rep., Mass.).

February 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.), in the course of debate on the measure providing for a business-methods commission, states that it is possible to save $300,000,000 annually in Government expenses.... The House includes in the Urgent Deficiency bill an appropriation of $125,000 for the Immigration Commission.

February 22.—The House passes the Indian appropriation bill ($8,250,000).

February 23.—In the Senate, Mr. Beveridge (Rep., Ind.) speaks on conservation of Alaskan mineral resources....The House passes a bill defining the limits of the bankruptcy law and reducing the compensation of receivers.

February 24.—In the Senate, Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) speaks in opposition to the Postal Savings Bank bill; Mr. Depew (Rep., N. Y.) explains his measure changing the civil government of Hawaii....The House begins consideration of the Post-Office appropriation bill.

February 28.—The Senate passes the bill creating a Government business-methods commission, to be composed of five members of each House.

March 2.—In the Senate, Mr. Gallinger (Rep., N. H.) introduces a bill for the incorporation of the Rockefeller Foundation under the laws of the District of Columbia....In the House, the bill apppropriating $500,000 a year for the purchase of embassy buildings abroad is defeated.

March 4.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) speaks on the Postal Savings Bank bill, advocating the amendment permitting, in case of war or other exigency, the withdrawal of deposits from local banks and the investment of same in Government bonds.

March 5.—The Senate, by vote of 50 to 22, passes the Postal Savings Bank bill as amended. ....The House considers the Post-Office appropriation bill.

March 8.—The Senate passes the Agricultural appropriation bill....The House passes the Post-Office appropriation bill.

March 9.—The Senate passes a bill appropriating $12,000,000 for the erection in Washington of buildings for the departments of State, Justice, and Commerce and Labor.

March 10.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation bill.

March 14.—The House devotes the day to consideration of District of Columbia measures.

March 15.—In the Senate, debate is begun on the Administration's Interstate Commerce bill, Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) speaking against the measure....The House passes the Legislative appropriation bill.

March 16.—In the House, a combination of "insurgents" and Democrats overrules a decision by Speaker Cannon.

March 18.—In the Senate, Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) concludes a four-day speech in criticism of the Administration's Interstate Commerce bill.

March 19.—In the House, after a two days' parliamentary contest, a combination of Republican "insurgents" and Democrats, led by Mr. Norris (Rep, Neb.), by vote of 191 to 155, succeeds in ousting the Speaker from membership on the Committee on Rules and enlarging that body to ten members, to be chosen by party caucuses instead of appointed by the Speaker; a motion by Mr. Burleson (Dem., Tex.) to declare the Speakership vacant is defeated by a vote of 191 to 155.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

February 17.—Secretary Ballinger withdraws from the public domain more than two million acres of coal lands in Wyoming and Montana. ....Senator Lodge (Rep., Mass) is made chairman of the Senate committee investigating the cost of living.

February 19.—The income-tax amendment to the federal constitution is approved by the South Carolina Senate, completing the ratification by that State....Representatives of the Guggenheim-Morgan syndicate testify before the Senate Committee on Territories as to the immense value of Alaskan coal and copper deposits.

February 21.—A special committee of the New York Legislature reports against direct nominations.

February 22.—The Mississippi Legislature, after a seven weeks' deadlock, elects Leroy Percy (Dem.) United States Senator to fill the unexpired term of the late A. J. McLaurin.... President Taft withdraws from the Senate the nominations for judges of the Court of Customs Appeals.

February 23.—The Illinois Legislature sends to Governor Deneen for signature the second and final portion of the direct-primary bill.

February 24.—President Taft announces that in order to redeem party pledges the present session of Congress ought to pass a savings-bank bill, amendments to the interstate commerce law, conservation measures, an anti-injunction bill, and a bill granting statehood to

Arizona and New Mexico....William J. Conners is forced to announce his retirement from the chairmanship of the New York State Democratic Commitee at the end of his term.

February 26.—President Taft sends a special message to Congress urging legislation to improve the personnel of the navy.

February 27.—The Post-Office Department formally replies to the statement of the periodical publishers regarding second-class rates, declaring it to be erroneous and misleading.... The Secretary of the Interior calls upon San Francisco officials for data to show that the use of the Hetch-Hetchy Valley is absolutely essential for the city's water supply.

February 28.—A letter from Senator Root, advocating the proposed income-tax amendment, is read in the Legislature at Albany, N. Y.

March 1.—The Illinois House of Representatives approves the proposed income-tax amendment, completing ratification by that State.

March 2.—The State-wide local option bill prepared by the Anti-Saloon League is rejected by the Maryland House of Delegates.

March 3.—Both houses of the Oklahoma Legislature ratify the income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution.

March 7.—The United States Supreme Court, in two decisions, rebukes the Interstate Commerce Commission for issuing orders in excess of authority....Comptroller Prendergast, of New York City, announces a $50,000,000 bond issue at 4¼ per cent.

March 9.—President Taft again sends to the Senate the nominations for the new Court of Customs Appeals; Robert M. Montogmery, of Michigan, is named as presiding judge.

March 10.—James R. Garfield, former Secretary of the Interior, testifies before the Ballinger-Pinchot investigating committee.

March 11.—New York State Senators, in caucus, elect George H. Cobb as their leader to succeed Senator Allds, resigned; the action is a victory for the Woodruff-Barnes machine as against United States Senator Root and Governor Hughes.

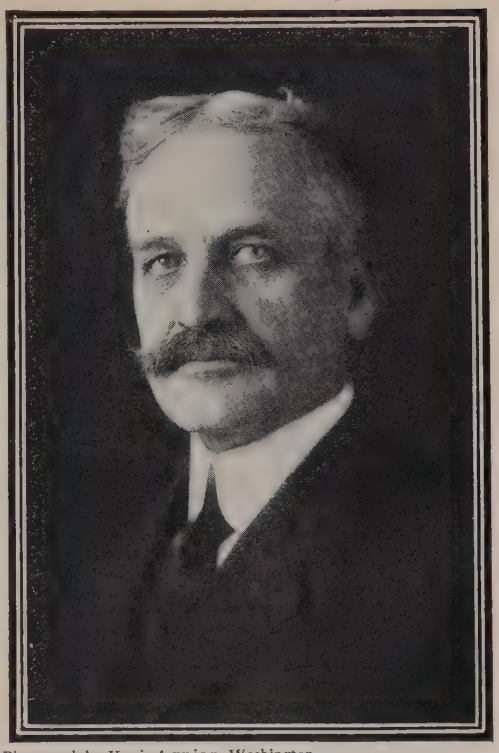
March 14.—John G. Milburn begins the argument before the United States Supreme Court to prove that the Standard Oil Company is not a monopoly and should not be dissolved.... President Taft issues a proclamation calling on all citizens to aid census officials.

March 15.—Frank B. Kellogg presents the Government's case against the Standard Oil Company before the United States Supreme Court....The President sends a special message to Congress, urging that the Government take charge of seal islands in the Bering Sea.

March 18.—Argument before the United States Supreme Court on the constitutionality of the corporation tax is closed....An investigation by the New York State Superintendent of Insurance reveals the payment, by fire insurance interests, of large sums of money to politicians at Albany in 1901.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

February 19.—A Socialist member in the German Reichstag freely criticises the Kaiser and causes an uproar in the chamber....Many arrests are made in Venezuela upon the discovery of a plot to overthrow the government in favor of ex-President Castro....The new Hungarian Government party is formally constituted at Budapest, Premier Hedervary expounding its principles.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

HON. LEROY PERCY

(The new Senator from Mississippi)

February 20.—Boutros Pasha Ghali, Egyptian premier, is fatally shot by a Nationalist.

February 21.—The new British Parliament is formally opened by King Edward with a speech from the throne.

February 23.—The Dalai Lama, head of the Tibetan Government, flees into India as Chinese troops enter Lhasa, the capital.

February 24.—The first division in the British Parliament discloses a government majority of 31, the Irish members refraining from voting.

February 25.—The Chinese Government deposes the Dalai Lama and orders the election of his successor....The Russian budget, for the first time in twenty-two years, shows a surplus. ....The domestic conversion of $50,000,000 Japanese foreign bonds is twice-over subscribed.

March 1.—The House of Commons votes authority to the government to obtain necessary loans and to suspend the sinking-fund.... Marshal Hermes Fonseca, former Minister of War, is elected President of Brazil....Count von Schwerin-Loewitz (Conservative) is elected president of the German Reichstag.

March 5.—The Peruvian cabinet resigns.

March 9.—Nicholas Tchaikovsky is acquitted at his trial in Russia for conspiracy, but Mme.

Breshkovskaya is sentenced to exile in Siberia. ....British naval estimates for 1910 show an increase of approximately $28,000,000....It is announced that the defalcations of M. Duez, liquidator of church property in France, may amount to $2,000,000.

March 11.—M. Jaures, the French Socialist leader, attacks the government in the Chamber of Deputies regarding the scandals in connection with the liquidation of church property.... Sharp debates occur in the German Reichstag and the Prussian Diet over the action of the police in recent Socialist demonstrations.

March 14.—Lord Rosebery presents a resolution in the British House of Lords that a peerage should not afford a right to a seat; Premier Asquith announces in the House of Commons that the budget will be introduced and disposed of before the spring recess.

March 15.—The French Chamber of Deputies, at the close of debate on the Duez scandal, votes confidence in the government:...The German Reichstag agrees to the introduction of a measure making the Chancellor responsible to the Reichstag for the acts of the Emperor. ....The Prince Regent of China issues an edict to the effect that Parliament will not be established before 1915, the intervening time being necessary to educate the people to self-government.

March 16.—The Prussian Diet, by vote of 238 to 168, passes the government's suffrage bill.... The Association of British Chambers of Commerce adopts resolutions favoring tariff reform.

March 18.—Socialists in Berlin parade in honor of the revolutionists of 1848.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

February 18.—France threatens to seize Moroccan customs unless the proposed financial arrangements are carried out.

February 20.—England and France urge China to respect the wishes of Russia and Japan regarding the Chin-Chow and Aigun railway.

February 21.—It is announced that the Sultan of Morocco has ratified the agreement with France....Minimum tariff rates are granted to imports into the United States from Greece, Morocco, Chile, Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, British and Portuguese Guiana, and Guatemala.

February 24.—Professor Lammasch, of the University of Vienna, is chosen third arbitrator in the dispute between the United States and Venezuela growing out of the claim of the Orinoco Steamship Company against the latter country.

February 25.—The Russian Government rejects Secretary Knox's Manchurian railway proposal by suggesting a different plan.

February 26.—The Austro-Hungarian Government grants most-favored-nation treatment to American imports.

February 28.—China replies satisfactorily to the British inquiry regarding her policy in Tibet, saying that the interior administration will not be changed.

March 2.—France accepts in principle Secretary Knox's proposal for the establishment of a permanent international court of arbitral justice....Russia submits to China a proposal for the extension of the Kalgan Railroad with foreign capital as an alternative for the Aigun and Chin-Chow project....Yielding to pressure from Russia, Japan, and Great Britain, China revokes in part the decree prohibiting grain exports.

March 3.—Minimum tariff rates under the Payne-Aldrich law are granted to imports into the United States from Austria-Hungary.... Secretary Knox makes public the personnel of the United States delegation to the fourth Pan-American Conference at Buenos Aires in July.

March 4.—Russia formally rejects China's proposal for the construction of the Aigun-Chin-Chow railway.

March 8.—A mob in Bogota, Colombia, stones the American legation and tries to wreck property of an American-owned street railway.

March 9.—The United States Government is unwilling to negotiate now, for purposes of convenience to Japan, a new treaty with that government, as the existing one does not expire for another year.

March 18.—Tariff differences between the United States and France are declared settled. ....An agreement is signed at St. Petersburg which restores normal relations between Austria-Hungary and Russia....The Japanese lower house passes the bill which permits foreigners to own land only when the foreign government grants similar rights to Japanese.

March 19.—President Taft and Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada, speak on Canadian-American relations at a dinner in Albany, N. Y.

March 20.—Costa Rica and Panama have signed the protocol stating the facts on which Chief Justice Fuller will arbitrate their boundary differences....King Peter, of Servia, with his Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, leaves Belgrade to visit the Russian Emperor.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

February 17.—The voters of Cleveland approve a franchise to the Cleveland Railway Company whereby service is to be furnished, under control of the city, at cost plus 6 per cent. return to stockholders, the maximum fare being four cents....Over 200 persons are injured in riots at Frankfort-on-Main following an attempt of the police to break up a Prussian suffrage demonstration.

February 18.—A severe earth shock occurs in Crete; a number of persons are killed by falling buildings....The Hudson County (N. J.) grand jury votes to indict the directors of the National Packing Company for conspiracy to raise prices.

February 19.—The employees of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company go on strike, demanding a recognition of their union and an increase in wages.

February 20.—Riots in every section of Philadelphia follow the attempt to operate street-car lines....A violent storm through Great Britain causes damage to farm buildings, shipping, and telegraph and telephone systems.

February 21.—Clarence O. Pratt, the national organizer of street-railway employees, is arrested in Philadelphia, charged with inciting to riot.

February 23.—Eight directors of the Consoli-

dated Milk Exchange are indicted by a grand jury in New York City for conspiring to fix the wholesale price of milk....The National City Bank, of Cambridge, Mass., closes its doors following the discovery of an embezzlement of $144,000.

February 24.—Two hundred members of the State police arrive in Philadelphia and assist in quelling disorder.

February 26.—With the arrival of ex-President Roosevelt and party at Gondokoro, on the Upper Nile, the Smithsonian African scientific expedition is practically ended. ....John J. Murphy, president of the Central Labor Union of Philadelphia, is arrested, charged with inciting rioting in the car strike.

Photograph by Paul Thompson

MOUNTED OFFICERS OF THE PENNSYLVANIA CONSTABULARY (KNOWN AS THE "BLACK HUSSARS") ENGAGED IN SUPPRESSING DISORDER IN CONNECTION WITH THE PHILADELPHIA CAR STRIKE

March 1.—Manufacturers and farmers in Belgium suffer greatly from flooded rivers....The Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company refuses to arbitrate its difference with striking employees....A referee affirms the right of the New York Central Railroad to run trains on Eleventh Avenue, New York City.... The Third Avenue Railroad, of New York City, is sold at auction for $26,000,000 to a reorganization committee of its bondholders.

March 2.—Announcement is made of a proposed Rockefeller Foundation, to promote the well-being and advance the civilization of the peoples of the world, to disseminate knowledge, and to prevent and relieve suffering....A long-standing tax dispute between lighting companies and the city of New York, involving $7,000,000, is practically settled....More than a hundred persons are killed in the burying of two Great Northern trains by an avalanche in a gorge near Wellington, Wash....Thirty-seven men are killed by the explosion of a powder magazine in the Treadwell mine, near Juneau, Alaska.

March 4.—Magistrate Furlong, of New York City, convicted of bribery, is sentenced to not less than one year in prison....Mayor Gaynor, of New York City, names a committee to welcome ex-President Roosevelt on his return from Africa....The New York City Board of Estimate favors granting a franchise for the proposed three-cent line across the new Manhattan Bridge and extending into the business centers of Manhattan and Brooklyn.

March 5.—About 40,000 union men go on strike in Philadelphia in sympathy with street-car employees....Henry Farman establishes at Mourmelon, France, a new record for aeroplane flight with two passengers, remaining in the air one hour and ten minutes....Ninety-two men are killed by an avalanche at Rogers Pass, British Columbia, while clearing the tracks of the Canadian Pacific Railway after a small slide a few hours earlier.

March 6.—Mount Vesuvius is in continual eruption, lava flowing from new fissures....M. Rougier, in an aeroplane, flies out to sea near Monaco at a height of nearly 1000 feet.

March 11.—James A. Patten, the wheat and cotton speculator, is mobbed by members of the Cotton Exchange at Manchester, England.... The coal strike in New South Wales is officially declared off.

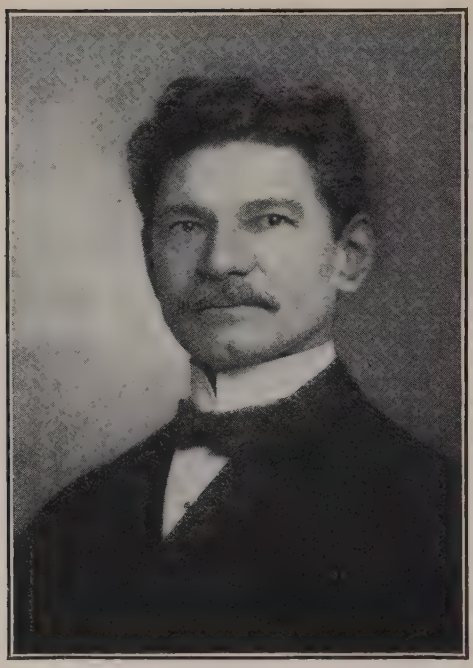
March 12.—A statue of John C. Calhoun is unveiled in the Capitol at Washington.

March 14.—Ex-President Roosevelt is warmly welcomed at Khartum.

March 15.—Peace negotiations are declared ended by a committee of ten of the striking Philadelphia car men....Interstate Commerce Commissioner Knapp and Commissioner of Labor Neill are requested by the heads of Western railroads to arbitrate, under the Erdman act, the grievances of striking firemen.

March 16.—President Taft leaves Washington on a 2500-mile trip to Chicago, Albany, New Haven, New York, and other cities....Secretary Ballinger, in an address at St. Paul, states his views on conservation of natural resources. ....Barney Oldfield, at Daytona, Fla., drives an automobile a mile in 27.33 seconds, or at the rate of 131.72 miles an hour.

March 18.—Seven lives are lost and 500 houses destroyed by fire in Yokohama....Announcement is made that the Chesapeake & Ohio has secured control of the Hocking Valley Railroad. ....The discovery of a fragment of a tablet believed to date back to 2100 B. C., containing an account of the Deluge, is announced in Philadelphia....Major-Gen. Thomas H. Barry is appointed Superintendent of the West Point Military Academy.



THE LATE LOUIS KLOPSCH

(Mr. Klopsch, as publisher of the *Christian Herald*, collected and disbursed large funds for famine relief in India and was active in many other philanthropic enterprises)

March 19.—President Taft and Governor Hughes, of New York, address the anti-tuberculosis conference at Albany....A mob of 5000 peasants stone a train in Thessaly, Greece; troops are called out and a number of the rioters are killed or wounded.

March 20.—United States Senator Penrose forces the Philadelphia traction interests to make certain concessions to the strikers; the unions continue to reject all terms offered.

OBITUARY

February 17.—Major.-Gen. St. Clair A. Mulholland, U. S. A., retired, 71....Henry Ulke, who painted many portraits of Presidents and Cabinet officers, 89.

February 19.—Neil Burgess, who played in "The County Fair" throughout the country for many years, 59....Count Udo von Stolberg-Wernigerode, president of the German Reichstag, 70.

February 21.—Edward A. Bowser, formerly professor of mathematics at Rutgers College, 65....Clay Clement, the actor and playwright, 46....Boutros Pasha Ghali, Egyptian premier.

February 22.—Arthur Fraser Walter, at one time proprietor of the London *Times*, 64....W. Edward Heimendahl, the musical director and composer, 52.

February 23.—Dr. Edward H. Merrell, formerly president of Ripon College, Wisconsin, 75....Amos Emerson Dolbear, former professor of physics at Tufts College and an inventor of telegraph and telephone appliances, 73....Mme. Vera Kommissarzhevskaya, the Russian actress.

February 24.—John Anderson, editor and publisher of the Chicago *Skandinaven*, 74.

February 25.—Mrs. Cyrus H. K. Curtis, the first editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal*, 58....Hamdi Bey, director of the Turkish Imperial Museum.

February 28.—Edward W. Very, an ordnance expert and inventor of night signals, 60....Rufus J. Lackland, the St. Louis banker, 90.

March 1.—José Domingo de Obaldia, President of Panama, 65.

March 2.—Joseph L. Sossnitz, the Jewish scientist and author, 73....Count Goetz von Seckendorff, at one time Grand Master of the German Court, 68.

March 5.—Louis James, the Shakespearian actor, 68.

March 6.—Thomas Collier Platt, ex-United States Senator and for many years Republican leader of the State of New York, 76.

March 7.—Louis Klopsch, editor of the *Christian Herald* and collector and distributor of large funds for relief of destitution in foreign countries, 58....Dr. Harry W. Jayne, an authority on coal-tar products, 52.

March 8.—Robert Graham, founder of the Church Temperance Society, 82....Jacob Schaefer, the billiard expert, 54....Rt. Rev. Edward King, Bishop of Lincoln (England), 81.

March 9.—Dr. William M. Gray, an authority on X-ray treatment, 57....David A. Munro, for many years an editor of the *North American Review*, 65.

March 10.—Dr. Carl Lueger, the anti-Jewish leader and mayor of Vienna, 66....Col. Alexander R. Chisolm, a Confederate veteran, 75.

March 11.—Dr. Eben Alexander, former Minister to Greece and dean of the University of North Carolina, 59....Congressman James Breck Perkins, of New York, 62.

March 12.—Bishop Henry W. Spellmeyer, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 62....James O'Connor, M.P., the Irish Nationalist, 74.

March 13.—Brig.-Gen. Luther P. Bradley, U. S. A., retired, 88....Timothy Harrington, M.P., at one time Lord Mayor of Dublin, 59.

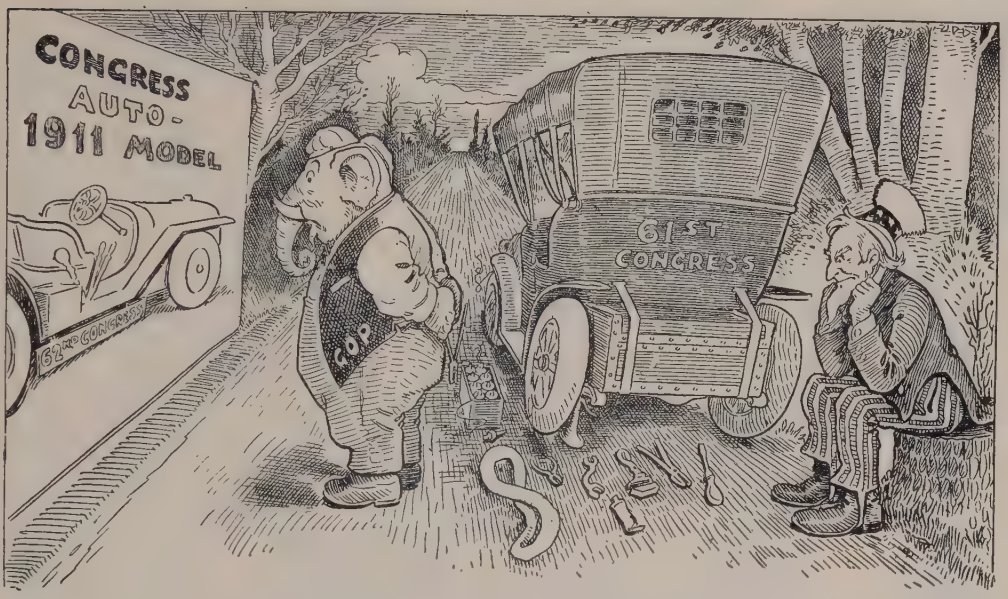
March 14.—Orville James Victor, editor and author of histories of the Civil War period, 83.

March 15.—Herbert Railton, the English artist in black and white, 53....James Martin, of New Jersey, a well-known newspaper man, 47.

March 16.—Morris H. Morgan, professor of classical philology at Harvard University, 51....Dr. Wharton Sinkler, the nerve specialist of Philadelphia, 63....Commodore William G. Hovgaard, the Danish Arctic explorer, who was for several years professor of naval architecture at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology....Tom Browne, the English comic artist, 38....Maurice Hutin, former president of the French Panama Canal Company.

March 18.—Rev. Carr Waller Pritchett, a well-known educator and astronomer, 87....Giovanni Lamperti, a prominent singing teacher of Berlin, 70.

CARTOONS ON CURRENT TOPICS



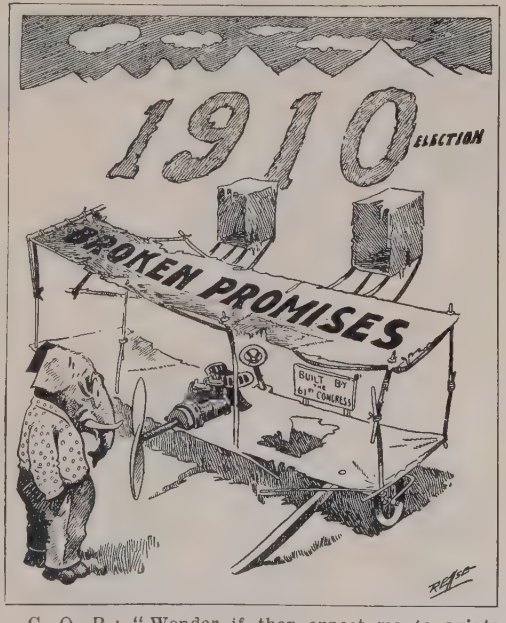
UNCLE SAM: "Say, old man, let's not worry about next year's model, but get busy with the one we have. It will go all right with a little fixin'"

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

Uncle Sam seems to be of opinion that a little more attention to the business of the present Congress by the party in power, and a stricter adherence to platform pledges, will do much toward insuring Republican victory in the Congressional elections this coming fall.

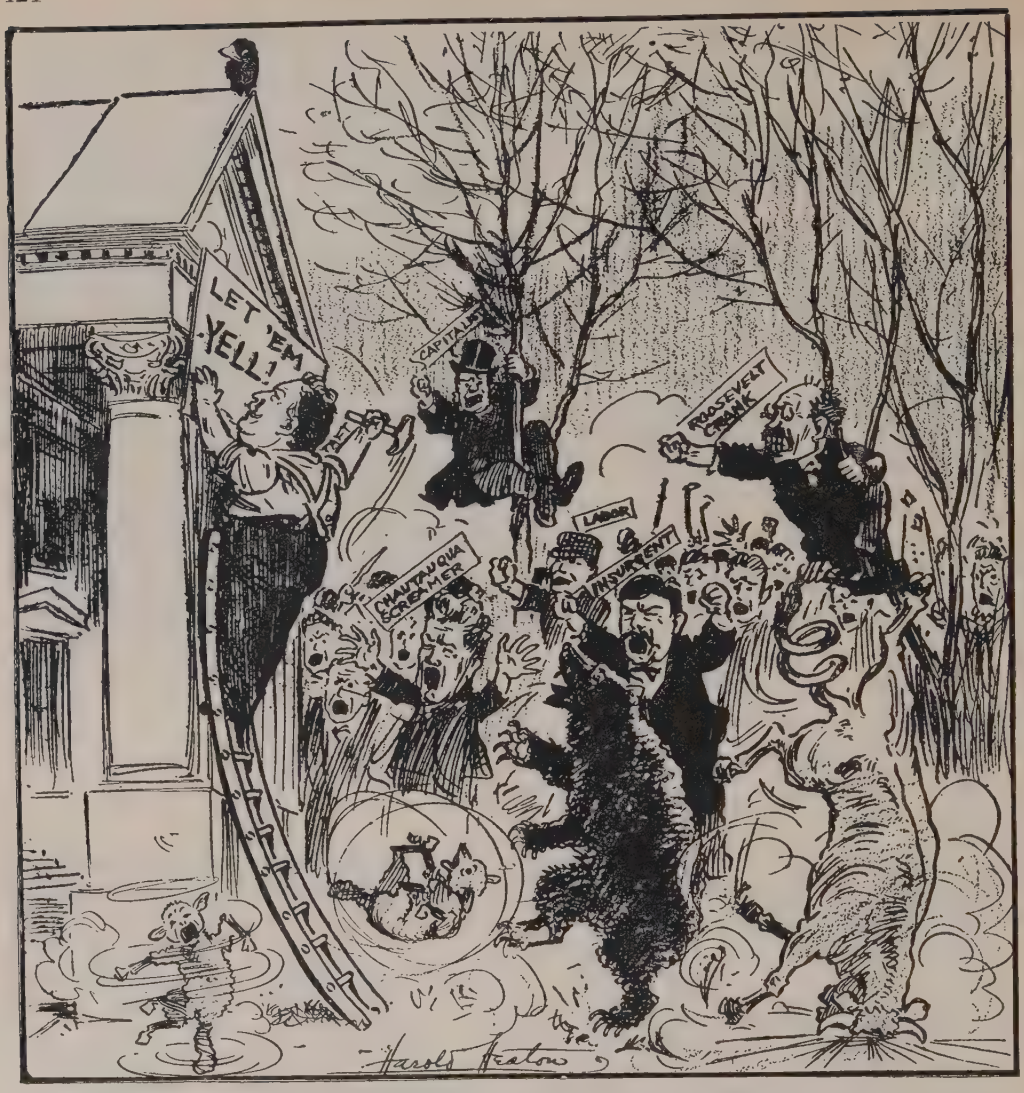
PRESIDENT TAFT: "Are there any reasons why we should not redeem the party pledges?"

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)



G. O. P.: "Wonder if they expect me to aviate over those mountains in this thing!"

From the *Pioneer-Press* (St. Paul)



THE FRONT YARD OF THE WHITE HOUSE

A cartoonist's view of the President and his critics.—From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

WAITING FOR THE REFEREE

From the *Tribune* (South Bend, Ind.)

"NOW YOU MAKE GOOD!"

From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

HIS FIRST TOOTH

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

KINDLY PACKING HIS GRIP FOR HIM

How they do love the little fellow. (Apropos of proposed amendments to the Postal Savings Bank bill)

From the *Daily News* (Chicago)

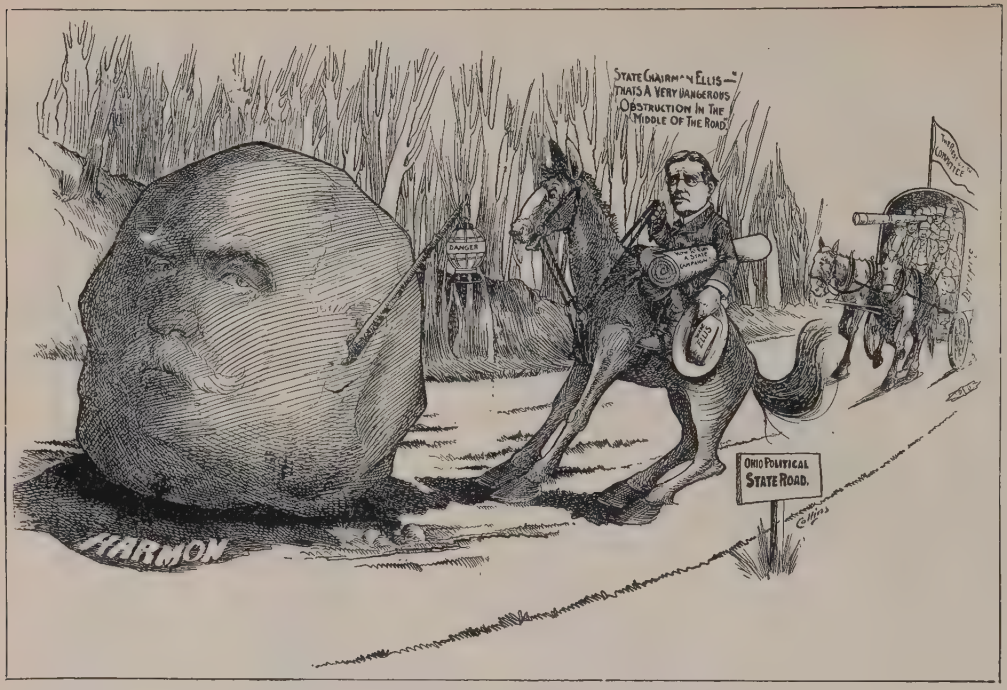
The Postal Savings Bank bill passed by the Senate last month found some of its strongest supporters among the "insurgents." There was no dearth of amendments to the bill offered both by friends and foes of the measure.

(Senator Aldrich's statement that $300,000,000 could be saved in running the government by the elimination of waste, extravagance, and obsolete methods, created a good deal of interest)

From the *Herald* (Washington)

UNCLE SAM PRACTICING "WHEN TEDDY COMES MARCHING HOME"

From the *Herald* (Boston)


STATE CHAIRMAN ELLIS—THAT'S A VERY DANGEROUS OBSTRUCTION IN THE MIDDLE OF THE ROAD.
HARMON
DANGER
OHIO POLITICAL STATE ROAD.

"IT LOOKS LIKE A ROUGH PASSAGE FOR WADE ELLIS"

From the *Meddler* (Cincinnati)

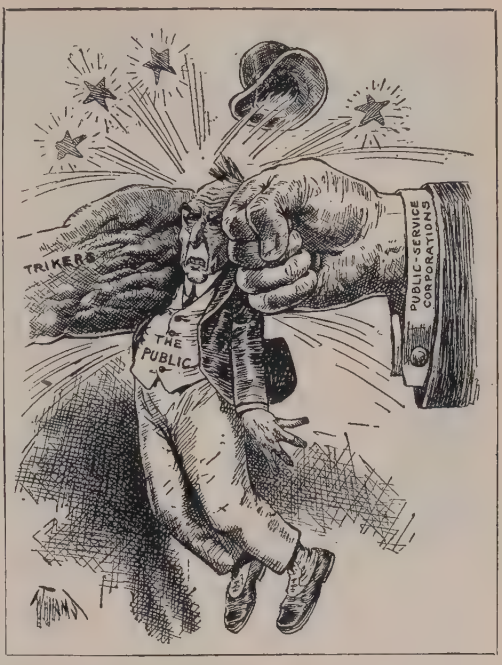
The political situations in a number of States are becoming extremely interesting. Governor Harmon looms large as an obstruction to Republican success in the Ohio elections next November. In New York, both the Democratic and the Republican parties have been having their troubles over the question of the State leadership. Chairman Conners, of the Democratic State Committee, successfully resisted an effort to oust him from his position, while similar efforts in the Republican camp have made Chairman Woodruff somewhat of an "uneasy boss."

"CHARLIE MURPHY AND FINGY CONNORS"

From the *World* (New York)

THE UNEASY BOSS

From the *World* (New York)



THE PHILADELPHIA TRACTION STRIKE

THE TARGET
From the *Plain-Dealer* (Cleveland)

THE INNOCENT THIRD PARTY
From the *Herald* (Boston)

Perhaps the day will come when this country, like New Zealand, will eliminate strikes by legislation, and the public may then cease to be the "innocent third party" that usually gets the worst of these regrettable industrial wars.

Between delegations of suffragists and "antis," on their annual pilgrimages to Albany, the New York State Legislature has been having a busy time during the past month. The metropolis, under Mayor Gaynor, rejoices in almost daily intelligence of new economies effected and large sums saved to the taxpayers in the administration of the city's business.

AND WE KNEW HIM WHEN HE WAS BROKE!
From the *Press* (New York)

WHAT CAN A MERE MAN DO?
From the *World* (New York)

HALLEY'S COMET

WILLIAM II.: "The end of the world? Impossible! I have given no such order."

From *Pasquino* (Turin)

THE KAISER DISTRIBUTING HONORS

THE KAISER (to Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg): "Bethmann, Bethmann, if you continue in this manner I will yet declare you the greatest dodger of the century."

From *Jugend* (Munich)

AMERICA'S FAR EASTERN POLICY—A JAPANESE VIEW

"All for the sake of peace, and everything in the interest of China," says America, just to get into the good grace of the Celestials.

From *Tokyo Puck* (Japan)

KING EDWARD IN ENGLAND'S TIME OF CRISIS

BY W. T. STEAD

A YEAR or two ago I was asked by the editor of one of the most widely circulated of all American magazines to write an article explaining to the democracy of the New World why monarchies still existed in Europe. I replied by writing an article in which I tried to explain what seemed to Europe the still greater mystery why no monarchy had yet been established in the New World. The editor rejoined that it was absolutely impossible for him to administer such a shock to the republican sensibilities of his readers as to publish an article which set forth that monarchy was normal and the republic abnormal in political society. Yet since history began nine human beings out of every ten, probably nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand, have lived and died as subjects of sovereigns, whether called dictators, emperors, kings, or Pharaohs. The republican may be the choicest flower of the most advanced form of evolution, but he is, as this world goes, a scarce breed. There are no republics in Asia, which has always been the greatest banked-up deposit of multitudinous humanity of all the continents. In Europe the French and the Swiss alone prefer the republican form of government to the monarchical. Only in America does republicanism live and thrive. Even on that continent, however, the nominal Latin-American republics are, in most cases, virtual dictatorships, with democratic institutions having no existence outside of their written constitutions.

THE RENAISSANCE OF MONARCHY

The simple fact is that there has been a great renascence of the monarchical idea in Europe in the last half-century. The glowing enthusiasm of 1848 has perished so completely that it is unknown to the new generation. Social Democrats have found nothing to conjure with in the word republic. New states like Norway and Bulgaria prefer to be ruled by kings rather than by presidents. Spain has tried a republic, only to revert to monarchy. France is republican. But it is a drab republic which excites no enthusiasm, and commands only the respect due to a humdrum system which keeps the machine going. The triumphs of the German monarchical system in 1871 profoundly impressed Europe. The experience of Austria-Hungary has convinced everybody that a Francis Joseph is indispensable if the Empire-Kingdom is not to go to pieces. It is the same all over the continent.

But it is in England that the revival of the monarchical principle (limited) has been most remarkable. The modern constitutional sovereign, whose power is rigidly circumscribed by usage and by statute, is invested by his position with such opportunities for influence as to make him, at such crises as the present, far and away the most important person in the state.

THE "SOVEREIGN LORD" OF THE BRITISH MONARCHY (LIMITED)

"Our Sovereign Lord the King" is a good sounding phrase. Austere republicans sneer at it, and lords and courtiers roll it under their tongues as a sweet morsel; but whether we like it or not we have all got to recognize the fact that when any constitutional crisis comes to a head Edward VII. is the master of the situation. He is our Sovereign Lord the King, master of all the parties and all the politicians. The supreme power has come to him. It is probably a great bore to him. It is a great burden and a great responsibility; but although he rigidly confines himself within the straight and narrow limits laid down for the conduct of a constitutional king, he dominates the situation. It is a curious outcome of a series of successive reform bills, each of which was declared in its turn to have surrendered everything to the revolution and to have sacrificed our ancient monarchy to radical democracy, that eighty years after the introduction of the first Reform Act the sovereign is more influential in a moment of crisis than any of his predecessors.

There are many ardent radicals who will resent this frank recognition of the power of the King; but it is well to face the facts and to recognize things as they are. And, however deplorable it may appear to be, the plain

brutal fact is that in any time of constitutional crisis we are all in the hollow of the King's hand, and he can do with us pretty much as he pleases. Our Sovereign Lord the King is indeed no mere courtier's phrase; it is the solidest reality in the politics of the day.

THE POPULARITY OF EDWARD VII.

The supreme authority of the King at a crisis like the present is inherent in his office, but it has been greatly enhanced by his personal popularity. There was a curious paragraph in the papers some time ago reporting the proceedings of a small revolutionary meeting in London. One of the speakers promised his cronies that the Social Republic would soon be proclaimed in England, and when that day comes, he added, we shall elect Albert Edward as our first President. A monarch who commands such universal respect as to have the nomination at the hands of the Reds for the presidency of the British Social Revolutionary Republic is more than "His most gracious." He is a man who has the confidence of his fellow-men.

I am no flatterer of kings, least of all of Edward VII. I am under no delusions as to his limitations and his defects. I am afraid that I have often offended him by the plainness of my speech and the freedom of my criticism. But I have always endeavored to do justice to his character and to make allowance for the difficulties and the temptations of his position.

The present crisis is no mere matter of a difference of opinion between Lords and Commons upon the details of any particular measure. It has arisen from a deliberate aggression by the Lords upon the privileges of the Commons, who refused supplies to the Crown in order to usurp the royal prerogative of dissolving Parliament. Due appeal having been made to Cæsar, Cæsar has given judgment against the Peers. The anti-peer coalition majority in the Commons is 124. The election, considered as a plebiscite, gave 400,000 majority against the Peers.

THE KING'S RESPONSIBILITY

But if the majority had been 324 in the House and 4,000,000 in the country, nothing could be done to punish the Peers for their aggression and usurpation or to secure the privileges of the Commons and the Crown from a renewal of such attacks, save by or through the action of the King. In ordinary occasions the monarch acts on the advice of the constitutional advisers. The King's scepter is then in the Prime Minister's pocket. But on extraordinary occasions when the Prime Minister advises an exercise of the royal prerogative which in the King's judgment may endanger the throne and imperil the constitution of the realm, it may be the King's duty to accept the resignation of his ministers rather than to act upon their advice. It is in these rare but supreme moments that the King must act on his own judgment under the sense of his own responsibility.

It may be well to try to look at the situation from the King's standpoint. He is above all parties and trusted by all. That is a national and an imperial asset of the first importance. No one suspects him of doing anything unsportsmanlike; no one imputes to him any personal or class bias; he will hold the balance even and see fair. His duty is to see that the government of the country is carried on without interruption.

At present the differences arising between Lords and Commons threaten to bring the government of the realm to a standstill. The Commons may refuse to vote supplies to the Crown unless the Crown uses its prerogative to compel the Lords to pass the veto bill. That means in plain English that the Commons will stop supplies unless the King will create as many Peers as are needed to overbear the resistance of the House of Lords to the sacrifice of their absolute veto.

WHAT IS THE KING TO DO?

The general belief among advanced Liberals and Nationalists is that the King has no responsibility in the matter. He has just to do as he is told. *Vox populi; vox Dei.* A majority of 124, with a plurality of 400,000 votes behind it, is sufficient warrant to any king to make any number of peers.

The assumption underlying the foregoing argument that the King is a mere automaton, who has no other duty than to do as he is told by his ministers, even if they tell him to effect a revolution in the constitution, is not accepted by Eing Edward any more than it was by Queen Victoria. It is the theory of the sovereign that, while in ordinary times and for ordinary purposes the cabinet has the Great Seal in its pocket, whenever a collision occurs between the two houses of Parliament it is the duty of the Crown to take a leading part in composing differences and averting a deadlock. So far from the monarch being denied all right to act on his own judgment and to take independent initiative of his own,

it is precisely at such a juncture that such independent action is imposed upon him by his position as peacemaker in ordinary to the state and balance-wheel of the constitution.

THE KING NOT AN AUTOMATON

When two authorities are up, neither supreme, how soon confusion enters at the breach, unless it is possible to introduce some third factor which can heal the strife. The King, rightly or wrongly, does not consider that he would be obeying either the letter or the spirit of the constitution if he were to abdicate his right of personal intervention between the warring houses. He is bound to act on his own judgment whenever his ministers advise him to act in a manner contrary to usage to effect a revolutionary change in the constitution. He may decide to act on their counsels or to reject their advice. But the responsibility of acceptance or rejection in that case rests upon him, with force undiminished by the use and wont which has destroyed his responsibility for assenting to acts of Parliament, a function which has become purely automatic.

IS THERE A MAJORITY?

"What security have I," the King may well ask of the Liberal Premier, "whether this coalition may not dissolve on my hands, just after I have acceded to their request? They may guarantee to carry on the government if I concede their terms. But will they be able to deliver the goods?"

That must of necessity be the first objection which the King would raise to the proposal that he should use his prerogative in order to swamp the House of Lords by four or five hundred newly created Peers of the Realm. It is a reasonable objection. No one can say, in view of the menacing speeches of the Nationalist leaders, that Mr. Asquith could guarantee the King the delivery of the goods; that is to say, could assure him that he could command the voting of supplies and the regular functioning of the administration. The King will rightly think twice, and even thrice, before committing himself to the destruction of the hereditary house when in the elective house the majority is in a state of flux, of unstable equilibrium.

But suppose the King waives that objection, and accepts a coalition majority of 124 as if it were equivalent to a Liberal majority of the same strength, what will be the next difficulty? Mr. Asquith has declared that the subordination of the Lords to the Commons must be effected by statute. That is to say, there must be a bill. The bill must be drafted, it must be passed through the Commons, and it must then be presented for acceptance to the House of Lords. Until matters have arrived at the final stage it is premature to ask the King what he will do. It is obvious that either in the drafting of the bill or in its passage through the House of Commons difficulties might arise which would render it unnecessary to consider its future fate. The King might fairly say, "I cannot give you a blank check. You cannot ask me in advance to promise to force any bill that you may hereafter choose to draft down the throats of the Lords. Make up your own minds as to what you want before you ask me for assurances as to what I shall do."

The King, like all men in his position, hesitates a long time when asked to take any step for which he can find no precedent in the records of the monarchy. This is natural and right. It may be that Queen Victoria was too nervous in this respect. If she had but insisted upon exercising her royal prerogative to make life Peers in the Wensleydale case she might have cleared the way for a tolerable solution of the present crisis. But a small Tory majority of thirty-five blocked the way with their protest that life peerages were unprecedented, and the Crown gave way. The King might naturally shrink from taking a revolutionary new departure such as would be involved in the wholesale creation of Peers for swamping purposes. The same forces of obstruction that foiled the Crown in the life peerage question might be invoked against the admission of this enormous influx of Peers created for the purpose of swamping the hereditary chamber.

The King will loyally abide by constitutional usage. He will dutifully act upon the advice of his ministers until they tender such advice as in his judgment shakes his confidence in their judgment. In that case he will seek new advisers. But he will naturally strain every point in order to avoid such a breach with the only statesmen who have any chance of getting supplies through the House of Commons. He will avoid meeting trouble half-way. He will give no blank checks. He will wait till the crisis reaches a point necessitating his intervention before he will interfere or even say how he will interfere.

EMPLOYING A BRASS BAND TO RALLY AUDIENCES FOR THE NEW YORK STATE TUBERCULOSIS CAMPAIGN

NO TUBERCULOSIS IN NEW YORK STATE IN 1920!

BY JOHN A. KINGSBURY

(Assistant Secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association, New York City)

"NO Uncared-for Tuberculosis in New York State in 1915!"

This is the watchword in the campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis in the State of New York. *"No tuberculosis in 1920"* is the hope. How the people of the Empire State have rallied for the fight against this disease in almost every city, village, and hamlet in that commonwealth in the short space of two years is a story that will doubtless be of interest to the citizens of every other State in the Union, for the crusade against consumption is not confined to the limits of any State or of any nation. In the words of Prof. William H. Welch, of Johns Hopkins University, the leader of scientific medicine in America, "The people have recognized their true foe in tuberculosis and are stirring to the combat throughout the civilized world." This is because enlightened men and women throughout the civilized world are beginning to appreciate the full significance of Pasteur's words, "It is within the power of man to cause all germ diseases to disappear from the earth."

The striking thing about tuberculosis is that while scientists have known for a quarter of a century how to cope with it,—and indeed a few of our larger cities have been successfully coping with it for the past twenty years,—nevertheless the "civilized world" has only just begun to stir itself to a systematic combat. Already, however, in the way of education great strides have been made. He would be held an ignorant person who should learn now for the first time that tuberculosis is a communicable, and therefore a preventable, disease, and that in most cases, if properly treated in the early stages, it is curable. At least, it is reasonably certain that there are comparatively few people in New York State to-day who could not "back the book" and recite for you these essential facts about tuberculosis:

Tuberculosis (or consumption) causes more deaths than any other single disease.

In the civilized world there are not less than a million deaths each year,—or two a minute,—which are due to this disease; in the United States this scourge claims no less than 200,000 of our citizens annually, and in the Empire

State we sacrifice to it an average of 16,000 lives each year, or one every thirty minutes.

One-third of all who die between the ages of fifteen and forty-five, just at the time when they are repaying to society their debt for nurture and education, die of tuberculosis.

Stripped of its technicalities, the average citizen would tell you, still backing his book, which is an admirable little pamphlet by Dr. Oscar H. Rogers, of Yonkers, the essental facts regarding consumption are:

That the disease which levies this terrible tribute is caused by a minute vegetable organism which lives, as a parasite, in the bodies of men and of certain animals;

A BADGE OF DISTINCTION
(Visitors become recruits)

That under favorable circumstances this parasite grows and multiplies with great rapidity, causing thereby the illness and finally the death of the man or animal in which it grows;

That placed under conditions where it can no longer grow it becomes like a grain of wheat, simply a seed, capable of waiting indefinitely until conditions arise for it to take on fresh growth;

That this germ is usually conveyed from one person to another through the sputum or through the discharges from tuberculous sores;

That the medium of such transmission is usually the air in which, in the form of dust, the germ is breathed into the lungs;

That sunlight and fresh air kill the germ, as do fire, boiling water, and certain chemical substances;

That outside the body of its host in dark, damp, unventilated places it is capable of living for many months, a source of danger to those who are susceptible to it;

And, finally, that consumption is curable in a large percentage of cases if taken in time, and on its early recognition rests the hope of its cure.

These are facts familiar to almost any school child in New York State; and naturally enough he is likely to ask, "If consumption can be prevented, why not prevent it? If New York City, with its congested population, has been able to reduce the death rate from tuberculosis 44 per cent. in the last twenty years; if Boston, and London, and Copenhagen have been able to cut their death rates from this disease in half,—why cannot we, of the smaller cities and rural districts, where fresh air and sunshine are free, do as much and more in the next ten years?" In certain sections of the State people are even more optimistic.

ONTARIO COUNTY'S OPTIMISM

"No Tuberculosis in Ontario County in 1915" is the slogan which has been adopted by the Ontario County Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, recently formed by the amalgamation of the several committees which have been organized in Geneva, in Canandaigua, and in the other larger villages for the purpose of concerted action and in order to prosecute persistently and intelligently a campaign not only of education but of action.

A SIGN OF HOPE
(By which we shall conquer)

Exhibits, consisting of mottoes stating briefly the salient facts about tuberculosis; of charts and diagrams showing graphically

Don't sleep in rooms where there is no fresh air.
Don't be afraid of night air.
Don't be afraid of cold air.
Don't be afraid of rainy weather.
Sleep with your windows open.
BULLETIN No. 8. Committee on Prevention of Tuberculosis, State Charities Aid Association.

AN ATTRACTIVE ENAMEL SIGN

(One of a series of eight which takes the place of the ordinary anti-spitting signs. They adorn telegraph poles all over New York State)

THE ONTARIO COUNTY LABORATORY AT CANANDAIGUA, NEW YORK

(The first county laboratory in the State)

its prevalence in various localities; of pictures of hospitals, sanatoria, dispensaries and other provisions for consumptives; of models of outdoor sleeping porches and facilities intended to aid the open-air treatment; and of various appliances needed in the consumptive's sickroom in order to give the patient proper care and to protect other members of the family have been shown in nearly every village in the county. Thousands of leaflets have been distributed, phonograph lectures have been given, and men and boys alike are wearing on the lapel of their coats a button bearing the double red cross (the official emblem of the international warfare against consumption) and the insignia "No Tuberculosis in Ontario County in 1915." Some schools are using the educational leaflets first as readers, then as spellers, and later as a basis for language lessons.

A most enlightened health officer in one of these country towns, Dr. D. S. Allen, of Seneca, has recently written this very interesting testimony concerning the practical results of this educational crusade in one school where the work was taken up intelligently by a real teacher, whose name is Miss Susan Moore:

The teacher reports to me that there has not been a single cold nor a case of influenza this winter among her forty-five pupils. In the school adjoining, some 2½ miles distant, there is a general epidemic, even to the teacher, and it has been necessary to close the school. In fact, there seems to be a well-marked epidemic of grippe all about us. This school, however, has escaped, and although there will undoubtedly be some cases, I do not expect it to attack the whole school. The reasons are obvious to any one who visits that little country school. The room is practically free from dust, the floors are kept exceptionally clean, although the school house is in the country where there are no paved streets nor sidewalks. The blackboards are washed several times a day; *individual drinking cups are used exclusively;* there is *no common towel; no spitting,* and *no*

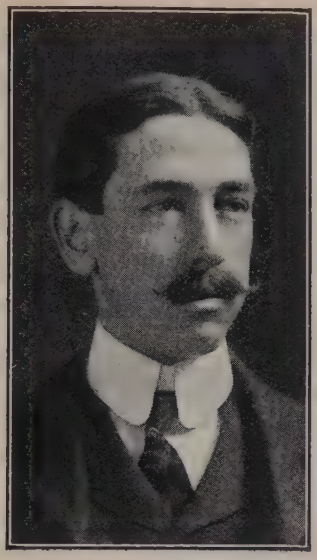
MR. HENRY B. GRAVES, OF GENEVA, N. Y.

(Popularizer of the slogan, "No tuberculosis in Ontario County in 1915")

A COUNTY FAIR EXHIBIT

(Doing service "out of season" in a Porto Rican school, sent by the National Association)

DR. LIVINGSTON FARRAND



HON. HOMER FOLKS

MR. GEORGE F. CANFIELD

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS

coughing or sneezing, except when the mouth and nose are covered with a handkerchief. To these precautions I attribute the freedom we are having in this district from contagious diseases (coughs and influenza) which are affecting our neighbors.

But such practical results of an individual nature are not the only ones which have already developed as a result of this campaign which has been so intelligently conducted in Ontario County under the leadership of Mr. Henry B. Graves, general manager of the Standard Optical Works, one of the busiest men in the county, who, in some way or other, finds more time to give to this movement than any one else. It should be said, however, to the credit of the leading physicians, clergymen, and many other business men in this enlightened community, that they have given most generously of their time, strength, and means to the end that their slogan may be realized. The result is there are visiting nurses in the city of Geneva and in the village of Canandaigua. These communities are providing temporary camps for the immediate care of persons suffering from tuberculosis, relief is administered intelligently to the deserving, and the Supervisors of Ontario County are pushing forward the construction of a county sanatorium which is designed to provide the best of modern care and treatment for persons residing in that county.

Even Mr. Graves does not believe that they will succeed in *stamping out* tuberculosis by 1915. He will admit that the slogan is more optimistic than scientific, but he will insist that it is good psychology; and he sincerely believes that the death rate from this disease will be much less by 1915 than it would have been if their slogan "No Tuberculosis in Ontario County in 1915" had not been pushed; and he believes that the death rate will be so greatly reduced that even those who are led to believe that there will be no tuberculosis by 1915 will not be disappointed with the actual result. Most communities, however, are hardly as optimistic; but, it must be admitted, neither are they so active.

THE STATE CAMPAIGN

"No Tuberculosis in New York State in 1920, None Uncared-for by 1915," is the banner under which most localities are now beginning to rally, feeling certain of partial success at least. Although this movement in many cities, villages, and counties is fast taking on the shape of the Ontario County plan, Ontario County has not been cited as a typical case. The plan, however, is typical, and that is why it has been discussed at such length, and it may be said that there are some counties which are now beginning to run a close second to Ontario; and there are several of the cities of the State, including Rochester, Schenectady, Albany, and Troy,

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MRS. RUSSELL SAGE

(Whose munificence in endowing and organizing the Russell Sage Foundation made possible the New York State campaign against tuberculosis)

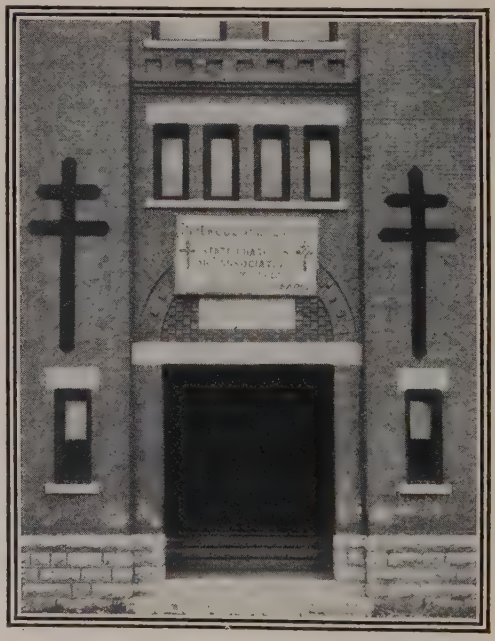
where the work is being pushed as vigorously as it is in Ontario County. Of course, it goes without saying that all of these local movements have been taking lessons of the splendid work which has been going on for several years in New York City under the direction of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society and the Health Department, and in Yonkers under the Sanitary League.

The work in New York State, outside of New York City, Rochester, and Yonkers, was begun a little more than two years ago, when, at the suggestion of Mr. Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, that organization appointed a Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis to undertake a campaign of education in New York State. This campaign was made possible through the munificence of Mrs. Russell Sage in endowing and organizing the Russell Sage Foundation, from which the funds for prosecuting this work are derived. The committee, of which Mr. George F. Canfield is chairman, consists of thirty-two prominent men and women from professional, business, and social walks of life in all parts of the State. It is the official branch of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis for the State of New York, outside of New York City, and the campaign which it has been conducting during the past two years has been carried on in co-operation with the New York State Department of Health.

AWAKENING A CITY

The method of campaigning in large cities differs somewhat from the plan followed in the smaller cities and villages and in rural communities. Efforts to arouse a city are more concentrated and perhaps more intensive because it is harder to attract the attention of a large mass of people and more difficult to hold it. It is essential to appreciate that the work must be strikingly brief and interestingly convincing. Long before the large exhibition of the State Health Department is to appear in a city all arrangements are made for a whirlwind campaign of publicity.

The exhibition is usually shown in the State Armory or some other large hall for a period of about a week, in connection with which stereopticon lectures are given every afternoon and evening; but for two weeks



A STRIKING ENTRANCE TO AN EXHIBIT

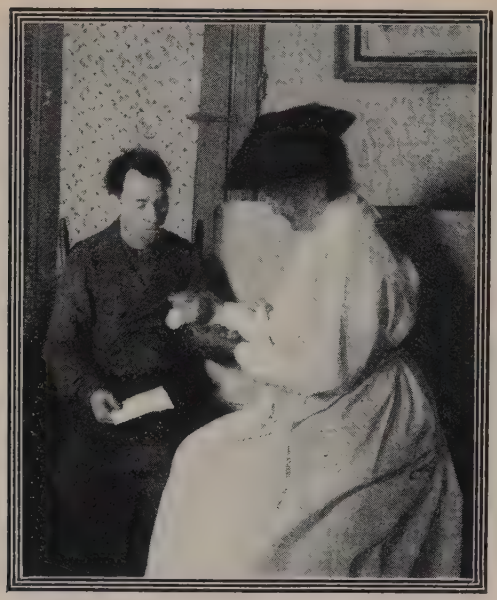
("It pays to advertise")

THE MUNICIPAL DISPENSARY, SCHENECTADY, N. Y.

(At the desk is Hon. Charles C. Duryee, M.D., formerly health officer, now Mayor, elected because of his activity in the tuberculosis campaign, who says, "A thorough examination of each suspected case is the first essential")

PREPARED FOR THE THRONG

(A section of a large tuberculosis exhibition at the State Fair in Syracuse)



ON DUTY

(A visiting nurse in a tenement home)

prior to the coming of the exhibition newspapers are printing short, crisp articles under striking headlines; mortality statistics which have been gathered are recorded in graphic and striking manner; advertising space in the papers, sometimes all of it, through the courtesy of merchants, is devoted to short talks on tuberculosis and to attractive announcements of the exhibition and the meetings; letters and circulars are sent to officers of lodges, fraternal orders, trade unions, women's clubs, and all other leading organizations, urging them to announce the campaign and to arrange for a special meeting for their respective organizations; street-cars and delivery wagons carry banners from morning to night calling attention to the campaign; factory employees learn of it through notices on their bulletin boards and through tickets which they find in their pay envelopes "admitting them to the meetings," on the backs of which they are bound to read a few emphatic statements about tuberculosis whether they attend the meetings or not; window cards tell of the coming campaign; theater programs advertise it; at night electric flash signs challenge the eye on every side and demand that the reader attend the exhibition.

UNIQUE PUBLICITY MEASURES

If, in spite of the impingement of these diverse psychological impulses, the matter has perchance slipped the mind by the morning of the Sunday on which the exhibition is to open, every church-goer will soon be taking warning from the pulpit that tuberculosis is something that can be downed by knowledge alone. Therefore, the pastor exhorts him to visit this exhibition and to attend these meetings. But if this does not get him, when he takes down his telephone receiver the "hello girl" will remind him that "this is tuberculosis week"; and if he is still so obdurate as not to be prodded or cajoled into attending the meetings he is likely to be swept into the Armory by the crowd rush, when just before the opening hour a tuneful band parades the streets playing propaganda music. It might be added, with apologies to James Whitcomb Riley, that "If these things don't fetch him, it will get him otherwise."

All this sort of publicity is kept up for a week and brings out the people in constantly increasing numbers, until at the final big mass-meeting the hall is taxed. The notice of this mass-meeting has occupied a prominent place in all announcements; and on the final

AN OPEN-AIR SCHOOL

(For tuberculous children and for those predisposed to the disease—one of the most valuable weapons in the campaign)

DR. S. ADOLPHUS KNOPF

DR. WILLIAM H. WELCH

Photograph by Pach Bros.

DR. WOODS HUTCHINSON

LEADERS IN THE NATIONAL MOVEMENT WHO HAVE AIDED THE NEW YORK CAMPAIGN

night, a half-hour before opening time, special attention is called to it by blowing the whistles in all factories and by the ringing of all church bells. At this mass-meeting the audience is given an opportunity to hear speakers of national prominence. On these occasions addresses have been made by Prof. William H. Welch, of Johns Hopkins University; Dr. Woods Hutchinson, Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf, Dr. Livingston Farrand; and in addition to these renowned medical authorities the speakers have included Hon. Joseph H. Choate, Governor Hughes, Speaker Wadsworth, and other distinguished public officials.

A STATE AROUSED

These, it is admitted, are revival methods, but they stand the pragmatic test,—they work. They not only get the people out, but they get the people stirred to action. To every one who attends these meetings the fact is brought home poignantly that 16,000 lives are sacrificed annually in New York

CAREFULLY PREPARED "CANNED LECTURES"

(Ready to follow the crowd)

A PRACTICAL LESSON IN HYGIENE

(Special arrangements are always made for school children to study the exhibit)

State to a preventable disease, and that something must be done about it *now*.

During the past two years campaigns of this character have been conducted in twenty-seven of the largest cities of the State; similar exhibitions have been sent to seventy-eight county fairs and two State fairs, and to twenty-four of the principal villages; 1,392,675 leaflets have been distributed; phonograph lectures on tuberculosis have been given to about two and one-half million people, who have visited these exhibitions or attended these fairs; sixty permanent committees, including in each case the most influential citizens in the locality, have been established in cities and villages where exhibitions have been shown, with a total membership of 3187. In most of the localities where committees have been formed the work has been continued and prosecuted with great vigor, and already important results have been accom-

AN IMPROVISED HOSPITAL

(The first county hospital for tuberculosis actually in operation in New York State was established by the Ulster County Board of Supervisors. Aroused to the urgent need for provision for the care of tuberculous patients, this county didn't wait years, months, nor even many days, but improvised a hospital which would serve until permanent quarters could be provided)

THE MOUNTAIN SANATORIUM

(Where the city of Binghamton has saved many lives)

plished, among which are the following: 14 free dispensaries or tuberculosis clinics; 13 laboratories for free examination of sputum; 25 visiting nurses; 7 day or day and night camps; 21 tuberculosis hospitals and pavilions established or in course of construction, or definite appropriations made therefor.

The dispensaries, hospitals, laboratories, and other public and private agencies for the actual care of tuberculosis established as a result of this campaign during the past two years have a total cost of $978,100 and an annual operating expense of $459,965.

At the present stage of the work the State Charities Aid Association is putting before

SUMMER CAMP ON A WINTER'S DAY

(Ulster County owes its hospital largely to the efforts of Dr. Mary Gage-Day, who was instrumental in starting this temporary summer camp, which led to a permanent sanatorium)

these local committees and before the people of the State, in the strongest possible light, a comprehensive program for the provision of dispensaries, hospitals, and other preventive agencies to be established during the next five years, to the end that there may be in New York State *no uncared-for tuberculosis* in 1915.

At the same time the association desires to put prominently forward a thoroughly conservative and scientific estimate, indorsed by the highest medical authorities, of what the State may expect to accomplish in the reduction of the tuberculosis death rate by 1920, if, by 1915,

Every county in the State has a hospital or sanatorium,
Every city and village an adequate number of visiting nurses,
Every community of over 5000 people a free dispensary,
All living cases of tuberculosis are reported to the health officer,
Every living case is in a hospital or sanatorium or under proper supervision at home,
Thorough disinfection is given to premises which have been occupied by a tuberculosis patient after every case of death or removal.

TUBERCULOSIS CAN BE PREVENTED

Of this we are assured on the highest scientific medical authority. Dr. William H. Welch says:

It is in my judgment a conservative statement that at least one-half of the existing sickness and mortality from tuberculosis could be prevented within the next two decades by the application of rational and entirely practicable measures, and *I believe* that we can look forward to a much larger success.

Dr. Frank Billings, of Chicago, recently wrote:

The State of New York is to be congratulated upon the fact that the propaganda of the fight against that terrible, but nevertheless preventable and eradicable disease, tuberculosis, has been so efficiently applied as to noticeably diminish the morbidity and death rate of the disease at the present time.

It is still further to be congratulated upon the fact that the measures which are so efficacious in the fight against the disease will be extended throughout the entire State by the year 1915. At that time with at least one dispensary in every county in the State and an additional dispensary in every city and village of over 5000 inhabitants, with a tuberculosis hospital with ample provision for the humane care of moderately advanced cases in every county, with efficient registration of substantially all living cases in the State, with adequate disinfection of all infected foci, and with proper provisions for the social relief of wage-earners, the disease should be practically driven from the State within the next five years, or by 1920.

If New York State will carry on this propaganda in the fight against tuberculosis as may be done successfully it will not only relieve the citizens of that State but will afford an example to the rest of the world and thus, in all probability, be the means of saving thousands of lives of citizens of other States.

Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf, of New York City, writes:

If such a thing as having in 1915 no uncared-for cases of tuberculosis among the poor as well as among the rich, all stages and kinds of tuberculosis being included in this category, would be possible, the reduction in the morbidity and mortality from tuberculous diseases in New York would be five years later (in 1920) at least 75 per cent. . . . The greater these combined efforts the greater will be the result and the sooner may we look forward toward the eradication of the Great White Plague.

New York City, Boston, and London have already cut in half their death rates from tuberculosis.

Why should not the smaller cities and rural communities, where conditions are more favorable, do likewise?

To cut in half the death rate from tuberculosis in New York State, outside of New York City, would mean an annual saving of 3000 human lives. Even to stamp out this disease and to save 6000 human lives per annum in the Empire State is within the range of possibility. This is the excuse for the strenuous efforts which are being made to secure the fullest and heartiest co-operation of every agency, public and private, and of every citizen in our State to carry out the program of *No Uncared-for Tuberculosis in* 1915.

No Tuberculosis in 1920 is put forth as a hope only. Yet some are optimistic enough to believe that it expresses a hope that will not be long deferred, and every effort is being made to come as near as may be possible to its realization. A Roll of Honor has been established, including those cities and counties which are making provision for the control of tuberculosis, and to the people of the Empire State the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the State Charities Aid Association is saying:

Let your city and your county be the next on the Roll of Honor. Why wait five years? Human lives are at stake. No other opportunity for social well-being compares in importance with the prevention of tuberculosis. Duty is measured by knowledge and opportunity. Every day of delay means death.

THE RETURN OF HALLEY'S COMET

BY S. A. MITCHELL, Ph.D.

(Assistant Professor of Astronomy, Columbia University)

IN all ages of the world's history the arrival of a comet has attracted widespread attention, and now with the return of Halley's comet we are but experiencing a revival of this perennial interest. The appearance of one of these monsters of the sky suddenly coming without warning was naturally looked upon by our forefathers as the harbinger of war and catastrophe, and we have many references in literature to their baneful influences. In Homer's "Iliad" we read of the "red star that from his flaming hair shakes down diseases, pestilence, and war." Shakespeare gives us the lines,

> When beggars die, there are no comets seen,
> The heavens themselves blaze forth the death of princes.

HALLEY'S COMET ON FEBRUARY 3, 1910
(As photographed by Professor E. E. Barnard, of the Yerkes Observatory)

THE OLD IDEA OF COMETS AS PORTENTS

Those who remember the great comet of 1882 will recall that many said that it was the cause of the war that England was then carrying on in Egypt; and our own great Civil War was ushered in by Donati's splendid comet of 1858, and by the comets of 1860 and 1861. Such coincidences can be numbered many fold; and it is but natural that there should have grown up in the popular mind down through the centuries the conviction that a comet brought in its train disasters of all kinds,—war, murder, and sudden death. Undoubtedly this old superstition has been the cause of our present interest in comets, and the year 1910, with its return of Halley's comet, is by some looked upon with fear and dread, for does not this comet of Halley's come so close to the earth that we are to sweep right through its tail? What will happen if the astronomers have made a slight mistake in their calculations and the comet should come into collision with the earth? With the earth traveling in space at the great speed of 18½ miles per second, and the comet in the opposite direction with a velocity even greater, such a head-on collision would be appalling; the earth might possibly be blown to pieces!

Altogether we have records of about one thousand comets, half of which were discovered before the invention of the telescope 300 years ago. At the present time five or six comets are discovered yearly; but most of these are faint and can be seen only with the aid of a telescope and are consequently known only to the astronomer. If each comet brought a war along with it, it would, indeed, require the continued sitting of The Hague Conference! The absurdity of this notion was recognized 150 years ago. One author of that period says: "If war is caused by the bile of a sovereign becoming heated by the approach of a comet, then in order to preserve the peace of nations a court doctor should be employed, who should counteract the action of the comet by the application of sundry doses of rhubarb." There have, indeed, been remarkable comets seen in years when a great war was being waged, or a comet may have appeared a year or two previous. There have also been splendid comets in the sky when

there was no attendant war, and likewise there have been great wars without their attendant comet. We do not recall any serious outbreak of hostilities following in the train of Coggia's fine comet of the year 1874, and certainly no one can point to a remarkable comet at the time of the recent Russian-Japanese war; and that surely was a great war. It would, indeed, be remarkable if wars and comets did not at times appear together, but to imagine that a heavenly body of such small weight as a comet could be able to disturb the affairs of men is perfectly absurd. This has even less foundation than the superstition that the moon has an influence on weather, for all the statistics of modern science show that the weather is absolutely independent of the moon.

HOW NEW COMETS ARE DISCOVERED

New comets are usually discovered by an astronomer after careful and diligent search with a telescope of low power. Such a quest demands an almost infinite amount of patience in nightly scanning the heavens up and down in the hope of detecting a stranger in our midst. So close a watch is kept that seldom does an intruder escape the eager eyes of the sentries and attack the citadel as happened with the first comet of the year 1910. Comet A, 1910, eluded all eyes till it became very bright and quite close to the sun, and an astronomer was not the first to see it. Sometimes a comet is accidentally found on a photographic plate exposed for some other purpose, such a one being the Morehouse comet of 1908. If the comet is not a new one, but the return of one already known, it is possible to direct the telescope to the point in the sky where it is expected, and a long exposure photograph may detect it. Halley's comet was discovered on September 11, 1909, on a photograph taken for the purpose by Prof. Max Wolf, of Germany. At the time the comet was very faint, and looked exactly like a very small star.

Up to the time of Sir Isaac Newton nothing was known of the behavior of comets. Some thought they took their origin from the sun; still others that they might have been volcanic matter thrown off from the moon, while others imagined they might be phenomena of the earth's upper atmosphere. Comets are much too large to be the result of volcanic action; still modern science has no adequate explanation of where they come from, though it seems certain that their home is in the solar system.

After Newton had firmly established the law of gravitation and had shown that all the planets and satellites of the solar system obeyed it, he inquired whether comets did not do likewise. While wondering over these matters the great comet of 1680 appeared and gave him the chance, and he showed that not only did comets obey gravitation and travel about the sun in obedience to it, but he explained how, from observations on three nights, it was possible to calculate the comet's path. If the comet moves in a closed curve it is called "periodic"; it returns to visit the sun at short or long intervals, depending on the size of the curve, and it then moves in an ellipse. Every child knows that an ellipse is drawn by sticking two pins firmly in a piece of paper, then taking a piece of string, joining the two ends together and tracing around with a pencil. In such a curve does a planet like the earth, or a periodic comet, move, and with the sun at one of the foci. The earth's path approximates much nearer a circle than the orbit of such a comet, but none the less they both move in ellipses.

NEWTON "PUBLISHED" BY HALLEY

As very often happens in the case of a very great man, Newton was of a shy and retiring disposition, and it is possible that his great work, the "Principia," would never have been published had it not been for his friend Edmund Halley, professor at Oxford, who even went down into his own pocket for part of the expense of publication. Halley, born in 1656, was thirteen years Newton's junior.

Following the method of Newton, and, as he tells us, after a "prodigious amount of labor," Halley, in 1705, published the orbits of no less than twenty-four comets. Of these there were three that seemed to have the same paths about the sun,—*i. e.*, their distances from the sun when at their closest points and the inclination to the ecliptic were the same. These were a comet observed by Peter Appian in 1531, one observed by Kepler in 1607, and one which appeared in 1682. Moreover, the celebrated comet of 1456 seemed to fit in with these three and seemed to point to the same comet returning after an interval of seventy-five or seventy-six years. When would be the next return? Halley was keen-sighted enough to see that Jupiter or Saturn might accelerate or retard the motion of the comet if it came near one of these big planets, and by a guess, having

in it the element of inspiration, he predicted that the end of 1758 or the beginning of 1759 would see the return of the comet; and, being proud of his nationality, he called upon "candid posterity to verify the claim which was first made by an Englishman." Halley died in 1742.

As the time for the comet approached the greatest enthusiasm was aroused in the prediction. In the meantime mathematics had been greatly improved and the art of calculating vastly facilitated. Clairaut, the Frenchman who took up the problem, found that the comet would be retarded 100 days by the action of Saturn and 518 days by Jupiter, or 618 days altogether, and he gave the date of passing closest to the sun as April 13, 1759. The comet was discovered on Christmas Day, 1758, and passed the sun just one month before the predicted time, a magnificent triumph for exact astronomy. The comet was a splendid object in the skies and likewise again at its appearance in 1835. This comet is now close to the earth and sun and is of the greatest interest to the astronomical world.

THE PERIODICITY OF HALLEY'S COMET

As this was the first periodic comet to be observed, the scientific interest in it has been very great, and previous visits to the earth have been carefully investigated. As is given in Table I, authentic returns of

TABLE I.—PAST APPEARANCES OF HALLEY'S COMET

Year.	Interval in years.	Year.	Interval in years.
B. C. 11.8	..	A. D. 989.7	77.5
A. D. 66.0	77.8	1066.2	76.5
141.1	75.1	1145.3	79.1
218.2	77.1	1222.9	77.6
295.2	77.0	1301.8	78.9
373.8	78.6	1378.8	77.0
451.5	77.7	1456.4	77.6
530.8	79.3	1531.6	75.2
607.3	76.5	1607.8	76.2
684.8	77.5	1682.7	74.9
760.4	75.6	1759.2	76.5
837.2	76.8	1835.8	76.7
912.2	75.0	1910.3	74.5

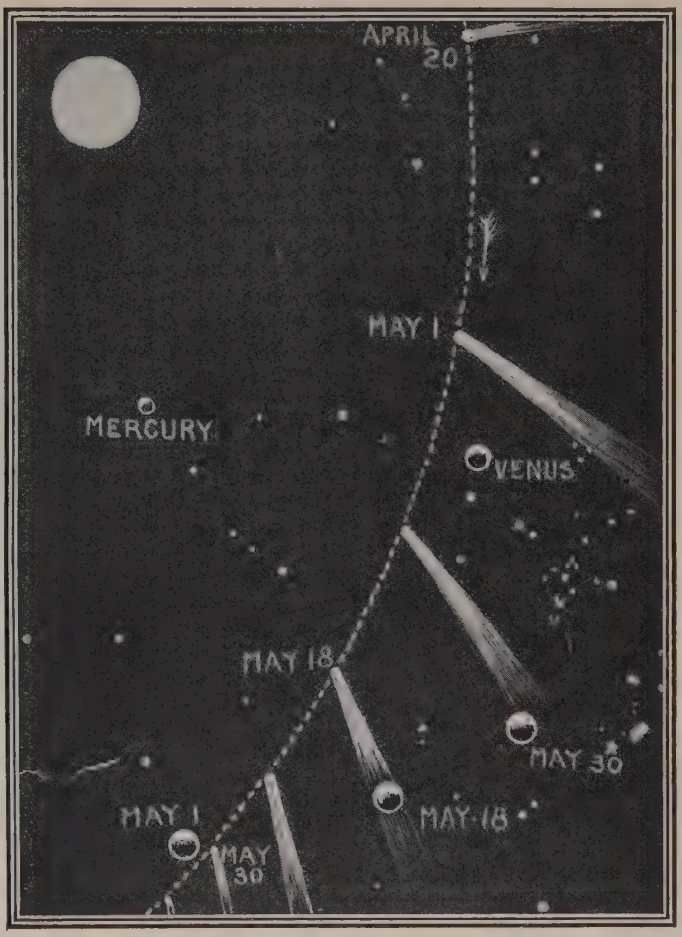
the comet date back without a break to the year 11 B. C. Even 225 years previous there was a comet observed that was undoubtedly Halley's, but the records are not absolutely conclusive. The dates give the times of perihelion passage, or the time when the comet was nearest the sun, and instead of placing the day and month of the year the times are expressed in decimals of a year, 1910.3 meaning that the comet came to perihelion three-tenths of a year after the first of January. The past appearances of the comet most worthy of note are those of 1066 and 1456. In the

HALLEY'S COMET AS IT APPEARED IN 1835
(From a sketch by Struve, probably somewhat exaggerated)

former year William of Normandy came over to England, and the Bayeux tapestry gives a representation of the popular belief of the connection of the comet with the conquest of England and the death of Harold.

CALCULATING THE RETURN OF A COMET

At the last appearance of the comet in 1835-36 its position in the sky was measured by many astronomers. From its motions as exhibited in these measures it was possible to calculate the comet's journey off to hundreds of million of miles from the sun. As the comet traveled through space it went close to some of the bodies of the solar system. These planets pull the comet exactly in the same way as does the sun, but with less force, since they weigh much less than the sun. The planets might accelerate or retard the motion of the comet, depending on their relative positions. These "perturbations" of the comet's motion it is necessary for the



HALLEY'S COMET, THE SUN AND THE EARTH

astronomer to calculate, and if the comet happened to pass close to a great planet the perturbations might be very great. By referring to the table, it will be seen that the time occupied by the comet in returning changes considerably, the difference between the least and greatest is as much as five years. At the 1835 appearance the calculations were very simple, but for the 1910 appearance were exceedingly difficult due to the close approach to Jupiter. In spite of these difficulties two Englishmen, Cowell and Crommelin, calculated the time of perihelion passage within three days of the actual time, and this, too, when the comet took nearly seventy-five years to make its return! By pointing the telescopic camera to the position in the sky calculated by them, Wolf discovered the comet seven months before it should be closest to the sun, when still at a distance of three hundred millions of miles from the earth. In these seven months the comet has been gradually brightening, but very slowly; but before many days from this writing it will be a magnificent spectacle in the skies.

HOW TO FIND HALLEY'S COMET

The diagram on opposite page shows the relations of the paths of the earth, comet, Venus, and Mars about the sun. The planets all move about the sun in the same direction, which is opposite to that taken by the hands of a clock; the comet, unlike the planets and all other comets of short period, moves about the sun in the diametrically opposite direction. The diagram shows that the comet is nearest the sun on April 20. To find the distance with respect to the earth, join simultaneous positions. For instance, on March 26 the line from earth to comet passes through the sun, and if we would place ourselves at the earth in the diagram, and look at the sun, we would see that the comet on the date moved from the left of the sun to the right of it. We all know that a body to the left of the sun as we face it sets after the sun, and if to the right of the sun the body is visible in the morning sky before sunrise. Hence on March 26 Halley's comet passed the sun and became a morning object. But it gets away from the line of the sun very slowly, and it will be the middle of April before it is at a far enough angle from the sun to be well seen. Following successive positions it will be evident that on May 1 comet and Venus are very close together, and consequently they should present a magnificent spectacle in the morning sky, especially so as Venus is then almost at her greatest brilliancy. Following still along with simultaneous dates we see that on May 18 the comet comes directly between the earth and the sun. Its motion carries it by the sun into the evening sky, where it

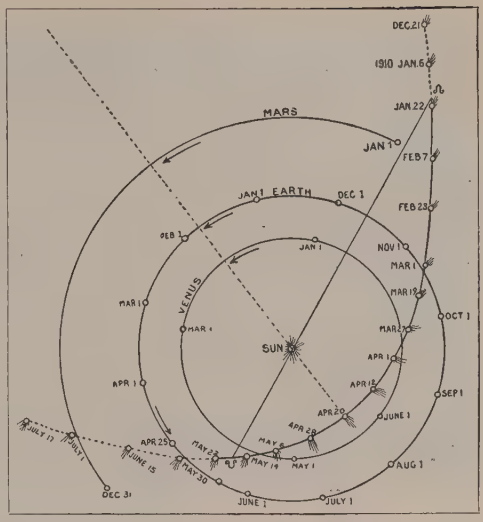
will remain throughout the summer, slowly getting fainter and fainter as its distance is increased.

TABLE II.—HOW TO FIND HALLEY'S COMET

1910.	Comet in morning sky. Right ascension. h. m. s.	Declination. Deg. Min.	Distance from earth in millions of miles.	Comet rises earlier than the sun. h. m.
April 4.....	0 5 38	+8 1	152.2	0 50
16.....	23 54 24	7 49	124.1	1 30
24.....	23 50 20	7 47	98.9	1 55
May 6.....	0 3 6	9 5	55.7	2 10
10.....	0 21 35	10 30	40.9	2 20
14.....	1 5 47	13 27	26.9	2 0
16.....	1 49 52	15 59	20.8	1 30
	Comet in evening sky.			Comet sets later than the sun.
May 20.....	5 3 23	+19 8	14.3	1 0
22.....	7 3 4	15 14	16.1	2 45
24.....	8 18 20	10 24	20.7	3 20
26.....	8 58 52	6 59	26.8	3 50
28.....	9 24 36	4 45	33.6	4 5
30.....	9 41 23	3 15	40.6	3 50

The brilliancy of a comet as it appears to our eyes depends on two factors: first, its distance from the sun, and, second, its distance from the earth. The nearer to the sun the more does our sun act on the comet and increase its intrinsic brightness, and, of course, the nearer any body is to our eye the brighter will it be. Halley's comet is nearest the sun on April 20, when of itself it will be most luminous. But after that date it gets closer and closer to us till May 18. Immediately after that date the comet should be very brilliant, and it will be favorably situated in the evening sky for us to see it. The comet in 1835 was less bright than it had been in 1759, when it had a tail 50 degrees in length, not because it had intrinsically decreased in brilliancy but because the earth was unfavorably situated in its orbit to give us a near view. While nothing is known absolutely of how bright the comet will be, astronomers are generally agreed that it will be a splendid object readily visible to the naked eye, with a tail at least 30 degrees in length. In fact, the comet will be seen better without a telescope than with one, and for those who are not astronomers a look through a big glass would be disappointing.

Science has taught us much concerning comets, but there is still much to learn. The comet of 1882 was the first in which the photographic plate was used, and it showed the wonderful possibilities of photography when applied to the heavens. Since then the greatest of all photographic astronomers, Prof. E. E. Barnard, of the Yerkes Observatory, has given us superb pictures, which show that a particular comet has nothing



THE PATH OF HALLEY'S COMET THROUGH OUR SOLAR SYSTEM

distinctive about its appearance in the sky, but that its tail may change radically from day to day. Since 1882 the modern spectroscope has been developed wonderfully; and this instrument of research used upon Halley's comet will solve many interesting problems. It has told us that comets' tails shine partly by reflected sunlight and partly by light of the gas composing the tail, and already we know that the tail of Halley's comet has in it the poisonous gas cyanogen.

PASSING THROUGH A COMET'S TAIL

What will happen when we pass through the tail on May 18? Will the cyanogen be enough to poison us? Or if we escape will vegetation be blighted or disease be brought? We shall be directly in line at 9 P.M., Eastern standard time. The Japanese people will be directed towards the sun and comet and will form the central part of the bombardment of the particles of cyanogen gas. However, the modern theory of the tails of comets tells us that though their size is enormous their weight is excessively small, and as a result the number of particles per cubic mile in the comet's tail is almost vanishingly small. The comet of 1882 was so situated that we could see through ten million miles of its tail, yet stars shone through it with undimmed luster. Hence, though there may be cyanogen gas in the tail it is there in such small quantities that could we have a cubic mile of the tail concentrated into a glass beaker

A TYPICAL MODERN COMET

(This comet, known astronomically as Morehouse 1908 C, was photographed on November 16, 1908, by Professor Barnard. The exposure was one hour and three minutes)

in the laboratory it would probably take the greatest refinement of chemical research to detect the cyanogen. In addition the earth is covered over with a shell of atmosphere thousands of times denser than the comet's tail, and the particles could not possibly penetrate to the earth's surface.

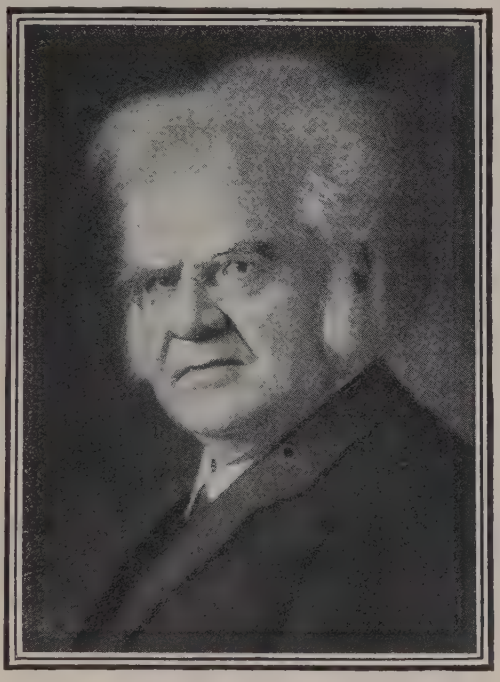
The tail of a comet always points away from the sun and is more or less curved, depending on the relative speed of the particles that are shot off to form the tail, and of the comet in its orbit. A splendid theory explaining the apparent negation of gravitation in comets' tails pointing away from the sun has lately been developed by the Swedish scientist Arrhenius. According to him the particles of the tail are excessively small, and they are driven from the sun by the pressure of sunlight. In addition a new tail is continually being formed, the old material is left behind in space, and the comet is slowly wasting away. The rarity of the tail may be imagined when we realize that Halley's comet has lasted as we know for two thousand years, and still it is not consumed.

Although the comet will pass directly across the face of the sun on May 18, it is questionable if even an astronomer will be able to see the transit, and although we shall be enveloped in the tail for some hours and shall be bombarded by cometary material we probably shall be totally unaware of it, for the cometary particles are so small that probably not even a meteor shower will take place. Indeed, so little of an unusual nature will occur that nothing would be known of it were it not for the calculations of the astronomer. The earth has more than once before passed through the tail of a comet; it happened last in 1861, but no one was sure that anything unusual was observed. However, May 18 will be a memorable day to the astronomer and all the refinements of modern science will be employed. Meanwhile the comet, as it gets closer to the sun, is getting brighter and the tail is increasing in length. On February 3 Professor Barnard estimated the length of tail on the photograph (page 443) at 5,000,000 miles, while on February 27 this had increased to 14,000,000, and this almost two months before the comet is closest to the sun and most active! The modern camera with the sensitive plate in the skillful hands of a great man like Professor Barnard will bring to us photographs of matchless beauty showing the many and varied changes taking place in the tail, while the spectroscope will help solve many perplexing questions of interest to the astronomer. From the length of the tail before passing through the sun it seems almost certain that Halley's comet will be such a magnificent spectacle that a quarter century hence we will tell our grandchildren about the great comet of 1910.

BJÖRNSON, THE POET-REFORMER

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

SOME writers, like Ibsen, seem to disappear behind their own work. With Björnstjerne Björnson it is different. In his case the man tends constantly to obscure the work. The reason lies near at hand. Ibsen, for instance, concentrated all his efforts toward a single point of attack,—the modern drama. Björnson, on the other hand, has always aimed at covering the whole front line of human progress. Wherever he saw the spirit of man struggling to rise above its present level, there he must needs give help. In doing so he used his art frankly as a means to an end. The wonder of it is that Björnson nevertheless proved himself a great and exquisite artist.



BJÖRNSTJERNE BJÖRNSON
(From the last photograph taken just before his illness)

In some quarters, especially Scandinavian, it was long the fashion to praise his poetry while regretting,—or even reviling,—his activity as reformer, patriot, and moralist. Yet this meant a denial of all that Björnson really stood for. And it implied a condemnation of his art as well, if this is seen in the light I have just suggested. For he was first of all a teacher and fighter and prophet,—not a shaper of beautiful forms. To him the form was always subordinate to the spirit, art to life. What actuated his whole being, coloring his written and spoken words, his public actions and private life, was his passion for truth, for cleanliness of soul, for the binding of man to man by ties of love instead of force. For this faith he fought untiringly during sixty years. At the same time he placed his whole mighty personality, with all its splendid gifts, against every form of oppression, whether exercised upon individuals, classes, or entire nations.

Though the son of a country minister, he sprang from a long line of peasant forefathers. In the heart of the real country, among the peasants, he was born and reared. And throughout his long life he never broke that once established contact with nature and the mass of common men. In later years it made him buy a big farm in the very heart of the Norwegian uplands. Not only did he make Aulestad, as he called it, his true home, but he found time to turn it into a model farm in order that his countrymen might profit by his example.

To his ancestry and upbringing must be traced his unswerving, life-long faith in modern democracy. To the same origin may also be attributed a vitality that seemed inexhaustible and that made his antagonisms as well as his sympathies nearly irresistible. To come near him, or even to read his printed words, sufficed to make one conscious of the wonderful power that emanated from him and that drew other men to him as the magnet draws the steel. A friend said of him once that "there was not an undeveloped muscle in his body nor an unused cell in his brain." This physical and mental wholesomeness went far to explain the intensity of his pas-

THE BJÖRNSON ESTATE AT AULESTAD, AS SEEN FROM A NEIGHBORING HILLTOP

sion for purity in the highest sense of that word.

From first to last his spirit showed a spontaneity and freshness of sympathy and interest that kept him youthful up to the very moment when the first forewarning of approaching death reached him. He was ever seeking new truths to master and new causes to champion. In this search he was invariably guided by what he deemed right, not by what the world held expedient. As he was in great things, so he was in small ones,—a big child, with a warm heart and a keen mind. He was already full of years and fame when he told a friend that the possession of a new pair of trousers made him get up an hour ahead of time in order that he might get that much more enjoyment out of putting them on for the first time. One Christmas when, in accordance with ancient custom, melted tallow had been sprinkled on the ground for the titmice to feast on, his wife saw him sitting in a very uncomfortable position near one of the windows of his study.

"Why," he cried in response to her question, "I have got to watch the sparrows, of course, or they will steal the tallow away from the titmice." That was the man of whom a friend said that "he risked his reputation at least once a year for some cause he believed in." It was the same man, too, who wrote to Zola while a majority of the French people were condemning them both for their defense of Dreyfus: "The relation of a poet to his works should be like that of a bank to the currency it issues,—there must be plenty of good securities in the vaults."

EXPONENT OF THE NORWEGIAN SPIRIT

One day in the early fifties he startled the Norwegian capital by appearing at the only theater as the leader of 600 youths armed with whistles. The storm that followed ended the sway of Danish acting and the Danish language on the Norwegian stage. Thus he entered upon his lifework of re-establishing the national spirit of his country on a higher and more genuine level. In that long struggle, which exposed him to so much hatred both at home and abroad, his cry was not "My country, right or wrong," but always, "Norway must do right at any cost!" For this reason he never deserved the name of politician, as this has generally been applied in the past. But he accepted it gladly, declaring that politics should be to the social body what morals are to the individual.

It was during those first, feverishly active years that he wrote his peasant stories and

BJÖRNSTJERNE-BJÖRNSON ON THE VERANDA OF HIS HOME AT AULESTAD

thus made Norwegian poetry appreciated beyond its native boundaries. While those firstlings of his pen have at times been unduly exalted at the expense of his riper work, one must grant them an originality and a charm that secures them a place entirely by themselves. Such stories as "Synnöve Solbakken," "Arne," and "A Happy Boy" have perhaps a wider appeal than anything else Björnson wrote. Nor is the interest attaching to them merely artistic. In building them,—as well as the first plays, dating from the same period,—he applied truly historic methods to art. According to his own assertion, he reached his results "by viewing the peasant in the light of the old Sagas, and the Sagas in the light of modern peasant life."

To consider what Björnson tried to do and actually did during the fifties and sixties is like looking into a fairy world, unaffected by ordinary human limitations. There was not a movement afoot in which he did not take part for or against. There was not a public question raised that he did not have to discuss in speech and writing. He was newspaper editor and contributor, theatrical director and playwright, political agitator and leader, poet and novelist,—all at the same time and in bewildering alternation. A mere youth, he did more than most to build that radical party of the Left, which has now shaped the destinies of Norway for more than a quarter-century. Through his patriotic poems he stirred the national spirit as it had never been stirred before, and one of those poems,—"Yes, We Love the Land that Bore Us,"—took such hold of the people that, in a very few years, it became the national hymn.

In the seventies his life took on a new aspect. He traveled and wrote. Secret, silent forces were at work within him. In quick succession he produced eight modern plays, each one of which struck to the heart of some vital question then uppermost in the mind of the public. In "The Editor" he dealt not so much with the press as with the kind of men that were frequently in control of it in those days,—self-seeking freebooters without any sense of social responsibility. "A Bankruptcy" and "The New System" attacked and exposed the commercial spirit, the passion for speculation and unearned gains, the falseness and shallowness of so-called "social" life. In "The King" he pictured the blighting effect of the monarchical convention not upon the people but upon the monarch himself.

BJÖRNSON ON THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF WOMAN

But none of these dramas of modern life created such a sensation,—not only in Norway but all through the Western world,—as "A Gauntlet," in which Björnson dared to deny the need of the double standard of sexual morality for men and women. In some ways the powerful woman movement in the Scandinavian countries may be dated back to that one play, with its inexorable demand, not that both sexes have equal right to live as they please, but that both have equal duty to keep themselves pure in body and spirit. To few other questions has Björnson returned so frequently and with so much fervor as to this one. He dealt with it again in his two great novels, "The House of the Kurts" and "In God's Ways." He made it the subject of a lecture on "Monogamy or Polygamy," which, in 1887, he delivered in more than sixty different places within the three Scandinavian countries and Finland. And it plays into almost everything else he has ever written.

That nature requires man to live a different life from that of woman he would not admit. And he insisted on tracing much of what is evil, both in the existence of the individual and of the race, to false sexual ideals and relationships. On the other hand, he has always kept himself free from the prudishness generally displayed by advocates of similar opinions in other countries. Love has to him always been the great moving power of the world, and he could imagine no love more beautiful or compelling than that which draws the right man to the right woman and holds both together in a union for life.

With his criticism of the traditional male attitude in sex matters, Björnson combined from the first a demand that women be given full economical, social, and political equality with men. This he did not only out of a sense of abstract justice but also because, like Ibsen and Auguste Comte, he believed that the future of the race rested largely with the classes hitherto kept away from public affairs,—that is, with women and workmen. Step by step he brought his countrymen round to his own viewpoint in this matter, and to-day Norway stands in this respect practically where Björnson would have it; the rights and duties of man are also the rights and duties of woman, and no class is excluded from full participation in the government.

RELIGION FREED FROM DOGMA

All his life Björnson has been deeply religious. During his earlier years he found in Christianity a satisfactory expression for this phase of his being. And it was with sincere sorrow that he saw Ibsen taking a more and more negative attitude toward the accepted creed of his country. In the seventies, however, Björnson passed through a crisis, as I have already told. The concrete truths of modern science claimed his attention to an increasing extent. He read Darwin and Spencer, Mill and Littré. Little by little the old faith fell away from him. The reflections of that period appear in the charming novel named "Dust." But though the dogmas of Christianity lost their meaning for him, his spirit retained its essentially religious quality. In no work is this more clearly evidenced than in the first part of his great double play, "Beyond Human Power." Next to the peasant stories it is probably the work best known in this country. Here, as on the other side, it has been much misunderstood. That it offers chances for contradictory constructions cannot be denied. But read in conjunction with the second part, —written after an interval of ten years and dealing with modern social conditions,—it seems to tell man that his faith cannot be placed with safety on the miracles promised either by religious or social extremists.

PLEADING FOR NORWAY'S INDEPENDENCE

It was in the eighties,—after a prolonged visit to this country, where he exercised a powerful influence on the numerous Scan-

dinavians in the West, and where he also developed a passionate admiration for Lincoln,—that Björnson earned his nickname of "Norway's uncrowned king." Rarely in human history has the life of a people been to such an extent focused in the life of a single individual, who yet was merely a private citizen. While determined that Norway should have no foreign guardianship, Björnson was at no time moved by hostility to Sweden or any other nation. Behind his fervent nationalism lay a not less fervent hope for a united Scandinavia; but the union, he felt, must be voluntary and based on complete equality. Here, as always, the fundamental motive was his faith in modern democracy. And even in those days he was already cherishing the still vaster dream of a great Pan-Germanic federation, rooted not in conquest or in the suppression of the smaller nationalities, but in free cooperation and common cultural interests.

The "clean flag," without the customary union mark at the upper corner, was the symbol he selected for his new Norway. For this symbol he fought against one-half of his own nation and all Sweden. At the same time he declared openly that he wanted "to dissolve the union in the minds of the people," and how well he did that work was shown in 1905. But he insisted on peaceful methods, respect for the rights of the other side, and postponement of final action until all Norwegian parties could agree on a common program. The irony of fate would have it that when the deciding crisis arrived at last he could take no part. He disapproved of the methods chosen for the breaking of the union. Once the break had occurred, however, he turned around in eager defense of his people before the rest of the world. As on many previous occasions, he achieved this through a series of brilliant articles and letters contributed to the leading European newspapers and periodicals. They used to say while Norway had not yet a diplomatic service of its own, that such an institution was not needed as long as Björnson represented the country abroad.

THE POET-REFORMER AND HIS WIFE RETURNING FROM ONE OF THEIR CONTINENTAL TOURS

CHAMPION OF THE WEAKER NATIONS

What occupied his mind more than anything else during the last period of his life was probably the idea of universal peace with its attendant substitution of arbitration for war. To him it seemed clear that such an idea could never become materialized except through the reformation of all international and inter-racial relationships on a basis of mutual sympathy and justice. He demanded national cleanliness and righteousness as he had formerly demanded those virtues of the individual. In the pursuit of these new ideals he became the fearless champion of all human groups held in forced subjugation to some stronger group. Time and again he took up the pen on behalf of the Finlanders against Russia, of the Slovaks against Hungary, of the Danes and the Poles against Prussia. Nothing could better prove his sincerity and courage than that his defense of these suffering nationalities was undertaken at a time when his own country was still greatly in need of the moral support of the powers he attacked.

SIGNAL HONORS IN DECLINING YEARS

His last years were rendered singularly happy by the growing comprehension of his spirit everywhere. His visit to Paris in 1901 was more triumphant in some respects than that of a crowned monarch. The celebration of his seventieth birthday anniversary in 1902 engaged the attention of the whole civi-

lized world. In 1903 he was given the Nobel prize for literature, and acknowledged the honor in a remarkable address on "poetry as a manifestation of the sense of vital surplus." What he was to his own people is best made clear by an incident which occurred at his beloved Aulestad not long before he was forced to start on his final journey to Paris in search of another lease of health and life. A regiment passed the place in the course of a maneuver. Its commander sent word ahead to the poet asking him to review the soldiers as they marched by. Björnson stood on the veranda of his house, surrounded by his entire family,—a man who had never held any public office, mind you! As the troop approached on the highroad below, officers and men gave the salute due to a commanding general or a member of the royal house. But this was not all. From the rapidly moving ranks rose one mighty shout after another,—a spontaneous outburst of devotion and gratitude such as it has been granted very few men the fortune to inspire.

A NEW PLAY AT SEVENTY-SEVEN

Björnson was seventy-seven years old on December 8, last year. During that year he finished a new play, "When the New Wine Flowers," which was given with great success in the three Scandinavian countries and Germany. Among previous works from his final period may be mentioned the plays "Paul Lange and Tora Parsberg," "Laboremus," "At Storhove," and "Dayland," and the novel "Mary." In several of these works he took issue against the exaggerated individualism which had fed on Nietzsche and which seemed particularly to attract the youth, not only of the Scandinavian countries, but of all the world.

When at last the message came that he who so long had seemed invincible was about to be conquered by death, a hush fell over all Scandinavia. For the first time in years Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes forgot their perennial bickerings in a united outpouring of apprehension and sorrow. Everybody saw suddenly in the dying poet the principal embodiment of their kinship and their common cultural heritage. He who, in the prime of his manhood, had so often been accused of sowing strife and misunderstanding was now recognized as the man who had bidden each people "be itself in truth" in order that it might more fully win the respect and confidence of all the others. In the rest of Europe, and to some extent here also, it has been felt that the passing away of Björnson means the loss of a great heart, capable of embracing the whole world in its love.

THE BJÖRNSON ESTATE IN SUMMER

(Over the house Björnson always kept flying the Norwegian and American flags, the latter in memory of his visit to this country in the early '80s)

USING OIL HEATERS IN A COLORADO ORCHARD AT NIGHT TO WARD OFF FROST

LESSONS FROM WESTERN FRUIT CULTURE FOR THE EAST

BY AGNES C. LAUT

WHEN the whole story of irrigation comes to be written it is a question whether the scientific methods, which irrigation necessitates, will not prove to have been as great a factor toward success as the supply of water itself. It is a question whether if the non-arid regions of the East and Middle West adopted the same scientific methods they would not have the same fabulous crop returns as have made the irrigation farms famous.

Time out of mind the late frosts have caught and blighted the blossoms of the peach and apple orchards of the East. Yet who ever heard of the orchard growers in the East setting out forty coal-oil burners to the acre and keeping them burning till the frost had passed? Again and again the weather bureau has forewarned a cold wave coming to the East or the Middle West. Yet who ever knew of a whole Eastern town turning out through the country side as volunteer workers to fight that frost off? The agricultural scientist has been telling farmers for forty years that the weedy fence corners and unkempt grass plot below fruit trees harbor the bugs and the insects that attack fruit. Yet how many orchards in the East do you see where the soil below the trees is kept smooth as a floor and clean of weeds as your dining room table? Punctured bark lets in disease, and the rupture of a broken limb may admit a fungus dust that will destroy the whole trunk; but you can count on one hand the number of orchards you have seen in the East where every break in the bark has been waxed or paraffined or cemented over till the wound closed.

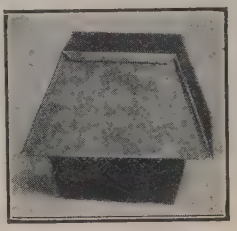
For twenty years your producer of the East and the Middle West has been howling at the extortion and tricks of the middlemen, who stand between the producer and the market. Yet how many producers' unions have been organized in the East and the Middle West with highly paid agents,—$5000 a year, for example,—to handle transportation and keep tab on the outside market? These are the things that have contributed to successful irrigation farming quite as much as a supply of water.

WHAT MADE FOR SUCCESS

"Is it the fruit, or the soil, or the sunlight, or the water or what?" I asked a prominent fruit grower of Grand Valley, Colorado, who last year cleared,—net profit,—$7500 from a ten-acre plot of apples. He had just told me that *average* returns, not exceptional returns, for apples in that valley should be put nearer $300 an acre than $1000; and here he was with gross returns himself of nearly $1000; and net returns for ten acres of $7500. These figures,—I may add,—I got from the fruit grow-

ers' shipping association and not from himself.

"Why, I should say it's soil, sunlight, altitude, water, and all," he answered, "but most of all it's our new methods. You see, where your running expenses for water alone average all the way from $3 to $15 an acre,—you've got to make good! It's Pike's Peak or bust! There isn't room for any leakage! You have to manage your farm the way an expert manages a railway,—right on the nail, down to the very last farthing! In the case of the railway, damage suits for carelessness fall on the shareholders. In the case of irrigation they fall on the farmer. Why, let me tell you about this orchard! You see I have twenty acres, but my returns came from only ten. When I bought this place I was a commercial traveler. The orchard had been set out by a retired clergyman and it was just coming on to bear,—some twelve years old. It had been set out pretty well as you see,—not a single experimental tree,—every one a tested variety and good producer. I think it a lot safer for the newcomer to buy an orchard coming on to bear if he can afford it. If a company sets out your trees and cares for them, it may be all right; or it may be all wrong. They may not be the right varieties; or they may not pollenize properly; or they may not be cared for while they are growing to keep them free of disease. I don't like these orchards with grass under them. It harbors too many bugs; and I don't like trees that have been grown too high and gone all to branch. Your fruit will be bruised in the picking; and high trees are more expensive to spray——"



OIL HEATER, CLOSED

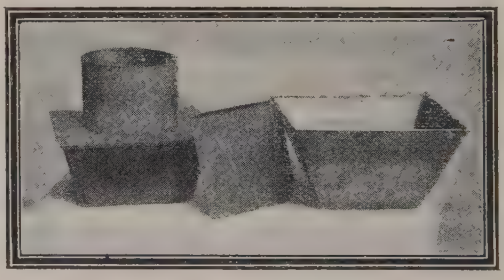
"Do you spray often?" I was thinking of a fruit county in the East, where I happen to live, though I am a Westerner. I know only one orchardist who sprays at all in that county; and he is an outsider; and he sprays only once a year.

"Spray often?" The Colorado man burst out laughing. "I keep two men at $60 a month each spraying all summer. We don't wait till the bugs come. We spray, spray, spray all the time and keep 'em from ever coming! I don't think I'm exaggerating when I tell you we spray constantly from the time we take the extra hands on after the blossoming till the fruit begins to ripen; and that is the smallest part of our labor. You see on this whole twenty acres there is not one single blade of grass growing the size of a pin. It takes work to keep that down with constant supply of moisture from the ditch. The idea is to keep the soil soft as dust, a dust blanket to hold the moisture. Besides I think,—and a good many fruit growers think with me,—that a lot of bitter weeds growing below trees taints the flavor of the more delicate fruits. Anyway, all that undergrowth takes away strength that should go into the tree."

FIGHTING THE FROST

"Do you fertilize?"

"Never! Not a pound! Keep your soil worked up and the air will oxidize and fertilize. I don't say that applies to *all* fruit regions; but it does to ours, where there is a great depth of humus and glacial silt in these red lands. Our first great danger is the frost. You know the altitude of this valley is 8000 feet,—that's pretty high, dry, clear, sunny air; and the blossoming comes on in spring before the frosts have gone. For years the spring frosts were a nightmare to this valley. We used to sit up over night and sweat blood over it, the way the wheat farmers do out in your Northwest in August.



ORCHARD OIL HEATER, OPEN

Well, about once in three or four years we'd be caught; and the fellows who had bought their land on the installment plan were all balled out,—couldn't meet cost of water and labor. Well, some of us got together and began to try cheap wrinkles with small coal oil and coal burners." (He did not tell me that he, himself, had been the chief inventor.) "We found to keep the temperature above the freezing point those coldest spring nights, it would take from

SPRAYING A GRAND VALLEY ORCHARD, COLORADO

thirty to forty small coal-oil burners per acre at a cost of about $26. We like the coal-oil burners best, because when you get them going they take less hand labor; and hand labor is a big consideration out here. We get the United States Weather Bureau reports at Grand Junction; and when the thermometer begins to drop during blossom time warning is telephoned out to every orchard man in Grand Valley. Last spring the townspeople came out in wagon loads, volunteer helpers to keep the coal-oil burners going and beat out the frost; and we did beat out the frost. The Board of Trade gathered the volunteer helpers up and sent them out to us. As a type of what the burners did for us,—you see how my orchard is laid out, ten acres on each side of the entrance drive,—well, I hadn't sufficient burners and workers to cover both fields; so instead of scattering our efforts and risking a half failure, we put all our efforts on the left-hand side. Results? Net $7500 from the saved field. The other half didn't pay the cost of labor.

"And the fight against spring frosts is only the beginning of our special methods. We don't spray till blossoming is past; but before spraying, just when the blossom is turning to little round hard fruit, about the size of a nut, we go through all the trees and clip out the bunches of fruit,—thin each cluster and cut other clusters out altogether, —aiming at perfect quality in size and flavor rather than big yields of scrubs and culls. To know just which clusters to cut out and which to leave,—takes good judgment and experience, as you can guess. It's a comical sight to a newcomer,—men all over the trees in May and June clipping and thinning the fruit. Then there is the spraying and keeping the ground perfect,—I mean perfect, not half perfect,—perfect tilth, fine and careful as your pet flower bed.

THE FRUIT ASSOCIATIONS

"Even with all this extra care with our orchards, which you people from the East don't know, I don't think we'd win out against the middlemen, the bloodsuckers who ruin your Eastern farmers, if we didn't have our fruit-growers' association. Every fruit-grower here pays his fee to join that association. We have our own cold storage and inspectors right at the point of shipment; and we have our agents in Chicago and New York and the other big fruit markets to keep us in touch by wire

FIGHTING THE FROST BY USING COAL ORCHARD HEATERS

daily with the prices. We don't pay these fellows paltry commissions. They are from among ourselves, and we give them as high as $5000 year. We have a man in Germany and France looking over the markets and methods there. Our association supplies the boxes and paper for packing and sees that everything goes out uniform and graded. At the station warehouses here, every apple, every peach, is examined as it is packed; and not a cull is allowed to pass. Apples flawed in the skin, bruised, specked, all are rejected and sent back to the shipper. What is the result? Our apples go right on the market in New York and London and Paris and command exactly as much for our small boxes,—one-fourth of a barrel,—as you pay for a barrel of other apples. They command that price because they are perfect in appearance and will keep. You pay in New York from $2 to $2.50 a box for our apples; and you can get a barrel of your Eastern apples for $1.75 to $2.50; but by the time you have used two layers off the top of that barrel the size begins to diminish, and the apples in the bottom have begun to rot before you reach them. Oh, yes, I know your Nova Scotia and Niagara and Michigan man boasts he can beat us out as to flavor; but we can beat him right off his own market at his own game, while we are 2000 miles away.

And who can say that the Colorado man is not speaking the truth? Why do the Colorado and Oregon and Washington and California and Utah fruit lands sell at from $500 to $1000 an acre, when the fruit lands of Niagara and Michigan and Nova Scotia sell at from $100 to $200? "Boom" and "boost" may have something to do with it; but "boom" and "boost" are not all. The rock bottom basis of values is interest on investment; and your man who gets $7500 from an investment of $12,000 has a right to a feeling of confidence in the methods used.

An almost similar story could be told of the sugar-beet growers in Utah and Montana, of the citrus growers of California and Arizona, of the potato and onion farmers in the Dakotas and Idaho and Montana. Water they must have for irrigation farming; just as they must have soil for any kind of farming at all; but the factor making for success more than water or soil,—which the Easterners might have as well as the Westerner,—the factor making for success is,—as the apple grower said,—the vigilance of the new methods. What were the sage-brush lands worth before the new methods came? From $3.50 to $10 an acre without the water; from $75 to $150 when the irrigation ditch came; from $150 to $1000 when put under fruit. Some fruit areas have sold as high as $4000, and in California under orange culture as high as $7000; but the high values are owing to exceptional circumstances,—a city going up on the edge of the farm, or a multimillionaire putting up a marble palace next door.

DANGERS IN IRRIGATING

Of course the picture has its reverse side; and it is only fair to the investor to give that reverse side. We were motoring through the Government project in Montana. "That fellow," said the engineer, pointing to a farm unit of some forty acres, "made $1500 from his watermelons last year; but this year he turned water on, two or three times too often. The growth all went to size,—didn't ripen,—frost caught him; and he'll close this season in debt." Almost next door to the man who turned the water on too often, was a pickle farm. The man had put in only some eight or ten acres in pickle vegetables,—cucumbers, onions, tomatoes,—just as much

as he could care for without hiring help. Then he bought a little gasoline engine for motor and boiler power and manufactured and barreled his own pickles right on the spot. Last year's pickle farming cleared him over $5000, with less labor and expense than the Colorado man had spent on his orchard.

At another time we were driving along the high line ditch of a Government canal. Back and above the ditch lay thousands of acres of high mesas, sage-brush plateaus, rich in silt but destitute of water. "That," said the engineer, pointing with his whip, "is where the 'wild-catters' operate. That land is being sold to Eastern tenderfeet as irrigated land at irrigated prices. You would think people should realize that *water will not run up hill*. Buyers could save themselves that loss if they wrote for information to the Government engineers as to whether the land is above or below ditch line."

What are the lessons of irrigation farming to the East? It is eleven years since I left the West to reside permanently in the East; and in those eleven years there have been at least four years when drought seriously affected farm values in the East. Yet the East has never thought of irrigation except for truck-gardens and green-houses. The East has plowed along in the same old furrow it was plowing in 1700. To construct water reservoirs for the East would be a joke compared to what is being done in the West; for water is always plentiful at some time of the year in the East; and the contour of hills lends to natural reservoirs. Even without irrigation storage one is constrained to ask, what would be the result if the East, right at the door of its markets, adopted the irrigation farmers' methods. Long ago the East gave of its manhood and its means for the winning of the West. The day may be at hand when the West, youthful and buoyant and perhaps even bumptious, will bring back some return for that old obligation to the East. The West *has been* reclaimed. Isn't it time for somebody to launch the evangel of reclaiming the East?

AN APPLE ORCHARD NEAR GRAND JUNCTION, COLORADO, THE GRAND VALLEY PROJECT

(A standard of cultivation unknown in Eastern orchards)

MAP OF THE NATIONAL FORESTS OF THE UNITED STATES

THE ADVANCE OF FORESTRY IN THE UNITED STATES

BY HENRY S. GRAVES

(United States Forester)

THE fundamental problem of forestry is how to make use of forests permanently. It is a matter of historic record that wherever this problem has been solved it has been largely through the work of the Government. The United States will not be an exception to this rule.

This country has just awakened to the need of the conservation of its forests and other natural resources. Public interest has been thoroughly aroused, and there is now a widespread demand that the destruction of forests by fire and other agencies be stopped, and that when timber is cut not only the interests of the present but also those of the future shall be considered.

During the last decade great progress has been made in the application of forestry. This is shown in a more conservative management of forests privately owned as well as in the handling of Government forests and the establishment of State forests. The remarkable development of the idea of forest conservation and the practical achievements in the application of forestry already secured are largely the results of the work of the Forest Service under the leadership of Gifford Pinchot.

The work of the federal Government on behalf of forestry falls under three quite distinct heads,—the management of forests on its own holdings, the promotion of the practice of forestry by States and private owners through advice and the education of public opinion, and the conduct of scientific investigations necessary to the successful practice of forestry everywhere.

NATIONAL FOREST ADMINISTRATION

In the first place, about one-fifth of the standing timber of the country is in the hands of the Government. Probably nine-tenths, or something like 400 billion board feet, of this Government-owned timber has been included in the national forests. The various Indian reservations are estimated to have in the neighborhood of 35 billion board feet, the unreserved public lands 15 billion, and the national parks 10 billion. There is also about 200 million board feet on various military reservations.

Down to 1905 custody of the national forests was given by Congress to the Department of the Interior. The Department of Agriculture, with its staff of trained foresters, merely gave advice to the Interior Department, just as it now does to private owners, States, and other branches of the federal Government desirous of assistance in applying technical forestry. On a number of military reservations forestry is being practiced by the War Department with the assistance of the Forest Service, which supervises the actual work. The Office of Indian Affairs now supervises its own work on the timbered parts of Indian reservations.

On the unreserved public lands of the United States no attempt is made to apply forestry, because these lands are subject to the general land law policy, under which the Government merely holds them unless they are taken by private individuals under various laws. If found better suited to forest purposes than to other use they would naturally be added to the present national forest area, and are being so added except in the States of Washington, Oregon, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, and Colorado, where Congress has forbidden the increase of the national forest area except by legislative enactment. In all other States the President has power to set aside forests from the public lands. Since February 1, 1905, the administration of the national forests has been under the Forest Service.

The national forests contain a gross area of nearly 195,000,000 acres. Within them, however, are over 22,000,000 acres of alienated lands. The actual holdings of the Government in the national forests are therefore about 172,000,000 acres. The purpose of the administration of this great area, which includes forests in Florida, Michigan, Minnesota, and Arkansas, as well as in all the

States west of the Plains, is to promote their fullest permanent usefulness to the wealth-producing activities of the country. This usefulness is found not only in the production of timber and other products derived from trees, but also in their production of forage for stock and in their control of water supply.

PROTECTION SECURED THROUGH USE

Although the first duty of the Forest Service administration is to protect these forests as productive resources, accomplishment of this end requires that main emphasis should be laid on the promotion of their use. Practically, they can be protected in no other way than through promoting use. To try to lock them up from present use for the sake of the future would be to attempt the impossible. It is not merely a question of cost. Not only would the policing against depredations and the prevention of forest fires in an unoccupied and empty forest wilderness of such vast extent necessitate an enormous drain upon the people; without use the resources of the forests could not be made fully available for the next generation. Use is the tool by which the Forest Service cares for these resources. The same thing has been proved true in the older countries, where forestry has had a chance to do its best work. The greater the population and the more highly developed the industrial state of the region in which a productive forest is maintained, the more completely is the forest resource protected and developed.

The ordinary man is apt to think of a virgin forest as superior in quality to anything which the forester can produce artificially. It is true that under favorable conditions the veteran growth of a primeval forest reaches dimensions more majestic than will be found in a forest grown for profit; but this is because to Nature time does not count for anything. On the other hand, a natural forest is exposed to dangers which it is the business of the forester to guard against. Those who have traveled in the West will have a vivid realization of the extent to which the natural forest has been ravaged by destructive agencies. Fires, windstorms, insect pests, and tree diseases have all contributed to forest depletion on an enormous scale. In most parts of the world fire follows man; but in the West lightning has always been a cause of fires, which dry climatic conditions make highly dangerous. Countless mountain sides which should be evenly wooded from top to bottom are either scarred with old burns or entirely bare of timber because fires started by lightning have burned until checked by natural causes. Until means of communication are developed and until forest management can be applied through sales of timber which should make way for a new growth, inferior forest conditions are inevitable. Inferior conditions mean not only a partial loss of the productive power of the land for timber supply but also less efficient water conservation.

WORK OF THE SUPERVISORS AND RANGERS

The work of applying forestry, and of learning how to apply it better, is in the hands of the staff of technical foresters in the Government employ. The higher officers of this staff have their headquarters in Washington and at six district offices, located at central points in the West; but as technically trained men become available the individual forests also are put in their charge. Their position is then that of forest supervisor.

On the ground, the actual work of the Government and the transaction of business with the public which use of the forests involves is mainly in the hands of the forest supervisors and forest rangers. These men comprise the greater part of the field force. There are 147 national forests, with an average size of over a million acres, each in charge of a supervisor or deputy supervisor. Though the supervisor spends a large part of his time in the field, a great deal of the business connected with the administration of his forest is necessarily office business, and his headquarters must be in a town and not in the woods. Much of the minor business of the forest is handled in the first instance by the rangers, and the execution of all classes of work is chiefly in their hands.

For example: A sale of a million feet of national forest timber is made to a lumberman. The actual sale of over $100 worth of timber must, as a rule, be submitted by the supervisor for the approval of one of the six district foresters; but the supervisor ordinarily recommends the sale before it is made. By the terms of the contract of sale the purchaser is required to take only such timber, and all such timber, as the Forest Service may designate for removal from the sale area, and must follow such regulations as are necessary to prevent fire and injury to young growth and provide for the future welfare of the forest. The actual execution of the

work falls to the rangers. They must mark the proper trees for cutting, scale all timber when it is cut, and enforce the observance of the conditions of the sale. The success of the application of forestry depends largely on the intelligence with which the ranger does this work. The most carefully devised plan for getting the kind of future forest that is wanted will go wrong if the ranger does not use good judgment in applying it.

Again, in handling the national forest range so as to secure the full use of the power of the land to produce a forage crop, the ranger represents the Forest Service on the ground. If too much stock is allowed to graze in any locality, serious injury is sure to result to the tree growth, to the range itself, and to the water supply. The wild forage plants must be given an opportunity to propagate themselves or they will be eliminated from the range, with a consequent reduction of its carrying capacity. With the range, as with the forest, the aim of the forest service is to make the land produce the largest possible quantity of the most valuable growth. In both cases the end is sought through wisely regulated use.

GOVERNMENT WORK IN AID OF STATES AND PRIVATE OWNERS

Besides caring for its own holdings, the Government seeks to further the practice of forestry on both State-owned and privately owned forests throughout the country. This work also is in the hands of the forest service. The organic act of the Department of Agriculture, to which the Forest Service is subordinate, defined as the general design and duties of that department "to acquire and to diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word." Since a permanent supply of forest products requires that forests should be grown as a crop, the work of the Forest Service properly falls within the field of the Department of Agriculture.

Like other scientific bureaus of that department, the Forest Service is trying to bring about the most intelligent use of our first resource, the soil itself, in the interest of the largest supplies of what we consume and the increase of the national wealth. Its methods differ from those of other bureaus working in this field, where they differ at all, principally because of the need of meeting a somewhat different situation. Agriculture throughout the United States has gone hand in hand with settlement. From the coming of the first colonists it was necessary in order to maintain life. The natural food supply of the country answered only to savage needs. But the original supply of forests is only now beginning to run low. The Department of Agriculture was created in order that farming, already universal, might be bettered by the aid of science; but to bring forestry into general practice both its value and its possibility had to be made known to a nation which did not understand fifteen years ago what the word itself meant.

Hence the first necessities were demonstration and the awakening of public interest. To demonstrate, if possible, that forestry was worth the consideration of practical men on practical grounds, the Forest Service has offered, since 1898, to advise and assist private owners in the actual application of forest management to their holdings. On request, foresters were sent to investigate on the ground as to whether forestry was likely to be worth while for the owner of any considerable tract. If the results were such as to lead the owner to wish to go further, a cooperative agreement was offered under which, by payment of the field expenses, he could have made a complete working plan. Such a plan, based on a careful study of the local conditions, would prescribe definite methods of handling, estimate the probable cost, and forecast the probable returns within a certain period.

Since this assistance was offered examinations have been made of more than 700 tracts of forest land, aggregating about 11,000,000 acres. To what extent the recommendations for the application of forestry have been applied on these particular tracts it is impossible to say definitely. The recommendations have been followed to some extent, but in comparatively few cases has the full plan proposed been carried out. On the other hand, results far wider than anything indicated by the statement of the number of examinations made have been obtained. It is primarily the result of the fact that the Forest Service met the lumberman on his own ground through these concrete studies, that lumbermen generally first began to see that forestry was not a fad or an impracticable theory, but a definite business proposition. To-day progressive lumbermen throughout the country are favorably disposed toward forestry, are in many instances beginning to apply it, and are undoubtedly ready to take

it up generally when the business conditions of their industry make it sufficiently attractive. The practical difficulty in the way of its immediate introduction is the fact of market competition with timberland owners whose sole concern is the speedy sale of what they now have.

In recent years, and especially since private foresters have appeared who are qualified to handle the work of large private owners, the Forest Service has ceased to make working plans for large tracts except in cases where by doing so knowledge of importance could be gathered. Owners of small tracts, such as farmers' woodlots, are still given advice on the ground when a member of the Forest Service can do this without too great a cost. As a result of the work previously done, it is now possible as a rule to give private owners advice through correspondence or the supply of publications.

The work of public education has been pushed by the Forest Service with great vigor, and has gone far toward reaching the ideal set years ago, of making forestry a word familiar in every household. There is still need, however, to continue this work. It is also the policy of the Forest Service to assist States in the working out of a forest policy. The expense, as a rule, is shared equally by the service and the States.

A wise State forest policy covers such matters as the appointment of a State forester, or a forestry bureau, to supervise the forest work in the State and to co-operate with private owners in assisting them to manage their forest lands properly; the enactment of laws for the protection of forest lands from fire by establishing fire warden systems, placing reasonable restrictions upon the use of fire, and providing suitable penalties for their infraction; the adjustment of taxes on forest lands, so as to encourage the private owner to cut his timber conservatively and retain the land for future production; the conservative administration of timbered or cut-over lands to which the State may, by reversion or otherwise, have acquired title, or the planting of lands acquired by the State which can be used most profitably for growing trees, and the purchase of wooded or cut-over lands by the State, or lands adapted to tree planting, to form permanent forest reserves under conservative management for future timber supply.

Although assistance is given wherever possible to States which already have foresters or well-organized forestry bureaus, such, for instance, as Connecticut, North Carolina, and Wisconsin, most of the assistance goes to the States which have no forest organization. Detailed studies of forest conditions have been made in New Hampshire, Kentucky, Missouri, Wisconsin, and California. Such studies usually include a forest map of the State, an estimate of the timber and the rate of exhaustion of the timber supply, a study of important timber trees, their stumpage values and rates of growth, practical suggestions for forest management, an investigation of the fire and tax problems, and a general forest policy for the State, embodying a proposed forest law.

Preliminary examinations of forest conditions have been made in the States of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. In such examinations a broad general survey of the State secures a basis for suggesting remedial forest legislation.

Studies of forest fires have been made in Maine, New York, and Michigan; forest taxation was studied in New Hampshire. Investigations have been made of the timber resources of Arkansas and Texas, and of both the timber resources and the planting possibilities of Iowa and Oklahoma. At present detailed studies of forest conditions are being made in North Carolina and Illinois, and a preliminary examination in Louisiana.

INVESTIGATIVE WORK OF THE FOREST SERVICE

Forestry means control of Nature's powers by man for his own ends. If we understand the life of the forest we can make it grow what we want instead of whatever it pleases Nature to vouchsafe us. Before the forester begins to cut he asks himself what the effect will be and governs his cutting accordingly. Perhaps the natural forest is made up of a number of tree species, of which one or two are particularly valuable, others usable, but less valuable, and others unmarketable. He must see to it that the result of the cutting is not to give him a future forest made up of valueless trees. He therefore studies the relative reproductive powers of the different species, their ability to fight with each other for standing room, and the length of time that each will require to reach merchantable size. Then he decides what is the best that he can make Nature do for him under the circumstances and goes ahead.

Silviculture,—the science of growing

trees,—is still in its infancy in this country. The forests of Europe have been so long under management that full data are available for deciding all the questions involved. One of the fundamental tasks of national forest administration is to gather these data for our own country. Already enough has been done in this direction to enable the Forest Service to cut timber with confidence that the results will be good. Doubtless these results will gradually reveal ways in which great improvement can be made, and it will be many years before forestry can reach the point at which our practice will come up to the best standards of older countries. If the Government is to handle its own forests, set aside for permanent usefulness, in such a way as to get the most out of them for the public, investigation and experiment must go hand in hand with administration. The forester faces a danger peculiar to his profession. If he makes a mistake through lack of knowledge it may be many years before he,—or his successor,—finds it out. It is therefore of the utmost importance to start right. In this field, as in all others, man reaps what he sows; but not until a long time afterwards. Foresight is therefore called for to an extraordinary degree. If the scientific investigation of forest problems is not prosecuted vigorously and with the highest intelligence the interests of the public will suffer.

ASSISTING PRIVATE FORESTRY

Investigations by the Government are needed on behalf of private forestry quite as much as on behalf of national forest administration. The country cannot afford to wait while its forests vanish until professional foresters in private employ have become numerous enough and have learned enough to build up the science needed. A broad and difficult field is created by the diverse forest conditions of different parts of our great country. Without the work already done by the Government forestry in the United States would not be much farther along now than it was thirty years ago. Forestry cannot be imported. It must be home-grown to have any practical value. All the work that the Forest Service has done in assisting private owners to apply forestry to their holdings,—and it was doing this widely and vigorously for some years before the national forest work amounted to anything,—has been conducted with a view to gathering knowledge as well as with a view to getting forestry applied on the property of individuals.

FORESTRY BY THE STATES

The work of the States in forest conservation consists of: (1) Organized fire protection; (2) establishment of State forests, especially at the headwaters of rivers, and (3) promotion of forestry through assistance to private owners through reasonable taxation and education.

For a long time there have been in many States laws regarding the setting of forest fires. These laws have been ineffective, because there has been no public sentiment behind them and no adequate organization to enforce them.

In recent years there has been a distinct increase in the activities of the States in legislation looking to systematic fire protection. Through good laws, properly enforced, many causes of fire may be eliminated. Carelessness in the use of fires in clearing land, in burning brush, in leaving camp-fires, in smoking, etc., may be largely stopped. Most fires from locomotives, saw-mills, and donkey-engines are not necessary, because there are practical appliances to prevent the escape of sparks from engines. When railroad fires occur it is usually because the best appliances are not used or are not properly used.

Adequate forest protection is, however, impossible without an organization to enforce the laws and to guard against fires. Laws designed to establish organized fire protection have been enacted in the following twenty-four States: California, Connecticut, Colorado, Idaho, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

As a rule these States have a system of local fire wardens appointed by the counties or towns. Their duty is to repair to any fire in their respective destricts and extinguish it. Usually the wardens have the power of arrest for forest misdemeanors and may impress help for fighting fires. The organization of the fire wardens varies considerably in different States. In some there is a regular department of forestry headed by a State forester, who has, among other duties, supervision over the fire wardens. In other States this work is in charge of a chief fire warden, Forest Commission, or

Fish and Game Commission. The best results are obtained by having a technically trained State forester, who will not only direct the work of the fire wardens, but have supervision of all other forestry interests in the State.

One of the chief defects in most of the fire protective systems is that they provide only for fighting fires, but do not provide for a systematic watching of the forests to prevent fires from starting. The idea of a systematic patrol has recently been introduced in a number of States. The new fire law of New York makes provision for patrol of the forests, and it has already proved successful.

The most serious handicap in fire protection and in other State work in forestry has been the inadequacy of appropriations. Success in fire protection can only be secured by close organization and supervision of the force of fire wardens. This has been prevented in most States by lack of funds. For this reason the results have often been poor compared with what might be secured with reasonable further expenditures.

Another important feature of State forestry is the establishment of State forests. Their objects are to protect areas which should be kept under forest cover for the regulation of stream flow and prevention of erosion, to furnish a demonstration in forest management for private owners, and to provide an assured supply of timber. New York takes the lead in acreage of State forests. Its reservations aggregate over one and one-half million acres, and the policy is to increase the area very largely. The State has a vigorous State Commission and competent force of foresters. Pennsylvania follows, with a reservation of nearly a million acres. Other States that have started the policy of acquiring State forests are California, Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Tennessee, Vermont, and Wisconsin. The total area of State forests now approximates two and three-quarter million acres.

A further duty of the States is to enact reasonable laws of taxation. The problem of taxation is being studied by a number of States and by the National Government, but as yet little progress has been made toward a uniform and sane system. In the long run the present system of taxation, if continued, will contribute directly to forest destruction.

The States should help private owners, not only by aid in fire protection and reasonable taxation, but by advice given through the State forester as to the best practical methods of forestry. There is a large work which can be accomplished by the States in general educational work in forestry and in scientific research and experiment. This work locally applied would be along much the same lines as is conducted in a broader way by the Government.

The foregoing are the first and most urgent duties of the States in forest conservation. Public expenditure will be required, and in many States the amount needed will be considerable.

Private forestry is progressing slowly. It is being practiced in a small way by many companies and individuals. Timber values are still too small to encourage large investments in tree planting and other measures of silviculture. Private owners are, however, becoming interested and in many cases are studying where they can improve the present methods. They will, however, be handicapped in their efforts until they receive proper help from States in fire protection and other ways.

Forest conservation is a public necessity. The protection of stream flow, the prevention of erosion, and provision of a permanent supply of forest products are required for the public welfare. It is the National Government and the States which must take the lead. There is a responsibility on the part of forest owners to use every practicable means to prevent waste and to conserve the productivity of the forests, and avoid such a management of their property as would result in injury to others. On the other hand, the burden of providing for the future and securing other public benefits must be shared by the States and the National Government.

THE PUBLIC FINANCES OF GREAT BRITAIN

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG

[In this series articles under the following titles have already appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS: "Japan's Financial Condition" (May, 1909), "The Finances of Mexico" (June, 1909), "The Serious Condition of Germany's Finances" (August, 1909), "Russia's Financial Condition" (January, 1910).—THE EDITOR.]

THE Lloyd-George program of public finance, whose promulgation a year ago precipitated the most remarkable fiscal controversy in the history of modern England, was the logical outcome of a situation which has long been in process of development. Speaking broadly, it was during England's twenty-two-year contest with republican France and with Napoleon that the nation was started upon the career of indebtedness, public expenditure, and augmented taxation which has led straight to the fiscal complications of the present day.

The struggle with the French was easily the costliest of all modern wars. Upon it Great Britain expended the sum of £831,500,000 ($4,157,500,000),—very much more than the aggregate outlay of the nation upon all other wars in which it has had a part since the times of Oliver Cromwell. The consequence was threefold. In the first place, the national debt, which in 1792 stood at £237,000,000, was augmented by upwards of £622,000,000. In the second place, there was a great leap upward on the part of ordinary, recurring expenditures. After 1815 the army and navy called for an outlay of from three to four times the amounts allocated to these services in Pitt's frugal budgets prior to the war; while the annual interest charge upon the debt had come to be no less than £32,000,000, or upwards of twice the total public expenditure for all purposes in 1792. A third consequence of the war outlay was the piling up of taxation beyond all precedent, so that a yield of £19,260,000 in 1792 had been raised, by 1815, to £74,500,000. And although after the restoration of peace there was some remission of taxation, so that by 1818 the yield had been reduced to £59,500,000, far the larger part of the burden imposed by the costs of the French wars has been carried by the taxpayers of the realm from that day to this. But for interest charges imposed by Camperdown and Trafalgar and Waterloo, Mr. Lloyd-George would have had ample means a year ago for the paying of pensions to the aged and the building of new *Dreadnoughts* without the necessity of additional taxation at all.

A STARTLING INCREASE IN NATIONAL EXPENDITURES

British fiscal history since 1815 falls into two principal periods, divided roughly by the year 1890. The first was distinctively an era of retrenchment and reform; the second has been that of enormously increased expenditure, augmented indebtedness, and fresh taxation. Between 1815 and 1885 the transactions of the Exchequer were on a scale far surpassing anything known prior to the French wars, but compared with those with which the Englishman of to-day is familiar they appear petty enough. Except during the Crimean War, the largest item handled was regularly the interest on the public debt. As late as 1841, at the accession of the ministry of Robert Peel, the aggregate national expenditure was but £53,750,000 ($268,750,000). Under Gladstone's tenure of the Exchequer, in 1853, it was £55,500,000. Eighteen years later, during Gladstone's first premiership, it was £69,500,000, and in 1880-81 it stood at £80,900,000, or not much over half what it is to-day. During this period the outlay upon the army and navy grew but slowly. In 1841 the cost of both was only £15,500,000, and until the eighties the military outlay rarely exceeded fifteen millions and the naval ten.

In the period covered principally by the two Salisbury ministries of 1886-92 and 1895-1900 there came a profound change, in the direction, chiefly, of a very great increase of national expenditure, entailing not

only a checking of reform but the adoption of radical, and sometimes questionable, policies respecting taxation and the national debt. In 1880-81 the public outlay was £80,900,000; in 1885-86 it was £88,773,000; by 1893-94 it had risen to £91,303,000; by 1895-96, to £97,764,000; in 1896-97, for the first time in an era of peace, it passed the hundred-million mark; and in 1898-99, on the eve of the Boer War, it stood at £108,150,000.

EFFECT OF THE GROWTH OF MILITARISM

The foremost factor in this remarkable record was the rapid growth of outlays on the army and navy consequent upon a revival of imperialism. The increase upon the army was comparatively slow, the total military outlay being, in 1879-80, £15,025,000; in 1884-85, £18,600,000; in 1894-95, only £17,899,000; and in 1898-99, £20,815,000. With the navy it was otherwise. During the earlier part of the century, when France was England's principal continental rival, the customary British policy had been to maintain a naval establishment 50 per cent. more powerful than that of the French. Until 1885 the vote for the navy was regularly much smaller than that for the army. Then came a change. In 1884-85 a series of bold strokes devised by Bismarck brought to the German Empire a colonial dominion comprising an area of a million square miles and a population of ten to twelve millions. The realization that Germany, not content with her marvelous industrial development, proposed to attain the status of a great colonial and naval power imparted to British imperial policy a stimulus whose effect was immediately apparent. The two-power naval standard was instituted and expenditures upon the Admiralty began to soar. In 1885-86 the outlay went beyond thirteen millions. In 1888-89 it all but reached seventeen millions; in 1895-96 it was £19,724,000; in 1897-98, £24,068,000; and in 1898-99, £26,000,000. In the space, therefore, of thirteen years the cost of the navy was practically doubled, and since 1895 the outlay upon the naval establishment has regularly exceeded that upon the army.

THE BOER WAR

"War," declared Gladstone upon one occasion, "suspends *ipso facto* every rule of public thrift and tends to sap honesty itself in the use of public treasure." Of the essential truth of this assertion one will find nowhere more striking illustration than that afforded by the history of the British struggle with the Boers in South Africa. When, on October 20, 1899, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach presented to Parliament his first estimate for this war, the Government proposed to conclude the contest within four months with an army of 50,000 men and at a cost not to exceed £10,000,000. As a matter of fact, the war occupied two years and a half; it brought into service 250,000 British soldiers; and it cost the nation an aggregate of more than £212,000,000, exclusive of interest charges, pensions, and an increase of "ordinary" expenditure directly traceable to the war sufficient to bring the total well above £250,000,000 ($1,250,000,000).

The annual outlay was far in excess of that upon any other war in which the English people has at any time been engaged. All the circumstances attending the contest conspired to make it an expensive one, but the necessary costs were enormously augmented by the laxity and incompetence of the War Office and of officials in the theater of hostilities. The means of carrying on the war were obtained from three sources. The suspension of the Sinking Fund in 1900-02 yielded £9,288,000; increased taxation,—on tea, tobacco, beer, spirits, sugar, coal, glucose, corn, and flour, with an addition of 7d. in the pound on incomes,—produced £53,208,000; while borrowing,—in the form of treasury bills, Exchequer bonds, consols, and a National War Loan,—aggregated £150,173,000, or more than 71 per cent. of the total.

The consequence was serious. The national debt was increased by £159,000,000, so that in 1906 it stood at £789,000,000. Upon the nation had been imposed a burden of fresh taxation amounting to upwards of £35,000,000 a year. The price of consols, already falling before the war, underwent a great slump. Worst of all, there came an enormous increase in national expenditure which, though following in direct line the development of fiscal extravagance since 1890, was occasioned at least in part by the war. In 1898-99, the last normal year before the war, the total outlay of the Exchequer was £108,150,000. In 1899-1900 the ordinary recurring expenditure, quite apart from the direct costs of the war, was £110,722,000; in 1900-01, it was £116,355,000; in 1901-02, £125,792,000; in 1902-03, £136,483,000; in 1903-4, £140,966,000; in 1904-05, £141,406,000; and in

1905-06, the last year of the Unionist administration, it was £142,032,000. The war period added between four and five millions to the interest on the fixed and floating debt and over four times that amount to the cost of armaments.

Upon the restoration of peace there was a widespread and insistent demand for the remission of taxation, and in the budget presented by Mr. Ritchie on April 23, 1903, a good beginning in this direction was made. The lowering of the income tax from the war rate of 1s. 3d. to 11d., together with a series of repeals and reductions of duties, struck off more than twelve and a half millions. Unfortunately the Government did not find itself in a position to continue the program. In 1904 Mr. Ritchie's successor reimposed imposts to the extent of nearly five millions and, beyond a reduction of the tea duty from 8d. to 6d., no relief was forthcoming in 1905. Such a record, in an era when trade was depressed, unemployment rife, pauperism growing, and social reform apparently at a standstill, had an exceedingly bad effect. The public took insufficient account of the fact that much of the taxation imposed between 1899 and 1903 had been independent of the war and had not been intended to be repealed upon the establishment of peace. Still, the Government's exhibition of prodigality very justly alienated the great taxpaying middle classes and the upshot was the overwhelming triumph, in the elections of January, 1906, of the but lately demoralized Liberal party.

THE LIBERALS' ATTEMPT AT RETRENCHMENT

The Campbell-Bannerman government came into power with a clear mandate from the nation to do certain things. High in the list stood (1) the halting of public extravagance and the effecting of substantial retrenchment in national expenditures; (2) the remission of as much as possible of the twenty-four millions of Unionist taxation still on the statute books; (3) the reform of the discredited army; (4) the undertaking of an elaborate program of social improvement, comprising old age pensions, the relieving of unemployment, the overhauling of the liquor traffic, and the liberation of education from ecclesiastical entanglements; and (5) the unequivocal maintenance of free trade.

During their four-year tenure of office the Liberals have carried out this program, in so far as conditions have permitted. Addressing themselves resolutely to the task of debt redemption, they have reversed the Unionist policy of diverting sums from the Sinking Fund to pay for unproductive "works" (public buildings, barracks, etc.); they have refused to borrow, even for the maintenance of the navy; and in four years they have contrived to redeem, out of the returns of taxation, indebtedness to the amount of nearly forty-seven millions, effecting an annual interest saving of a million and a quarter.

With respect to the public expenditures results have been less auspicious. After a slight dropping back in 1906-07 the successive Liberal budgets have stipulated expenditures considerably in excess of the Unionist outlays prior to 1906. The climax has come in the memorable budget of 1909-10, which, in its original form, provided for an expenditure of £165,000,000,—almost twenty-five millions in excess of the sum carried by the last budget formulated by the Balfour administration. The Liberal defense is threefold. The debt is being paid off at an unprecedented pace. The sentiment of the nation has compelled vaster outlays upon the navy than were dreamed of even half a decade ago. And the inauguration of the program of social reform, to which the Liberals are thoroughly committed and to which the Unionists are clearly not averse, has meant inevitably the swelling of the budget by items hitherto wholly unknown, the most notable as yet being the old age pension scheme of 1908, costing at present upwards of seven millions a year, but, by universal admission, certain to involve eventually an outlay of from two to three times that amount.

By all odds the biggest task with which it has fallen to the Liberal administrations of Mr. Campbell-Bannerman and Mr. Asquith to wrestle has been the readjustment of the public revenues. Obligated, on the one hand, by the most explicit campaign pledges to remit Unionist taxes, yet confronted, on the other, by fast growing expenditures, the Government has found itself in an increasingly embarrassing position. With the first two or three years of experience two fundamental convictions were gradually evolved: (1) that the redemption of the debt and the growth of outlays upon armaments and social reform mean inevitably that the aggregate yield of taxation must be steadily increased, and (2) that pub-

lic justice absolutely requires a redistribution of the burdens hitherto imposed upon the tax-paying population of the kingdom.

Between 1906 and 1909 an honest attempt was made to redeem campaign promises. The duty of a shilling per ton on exports of coal was removed, the tea duty was lowered by a penny, the sugar duty was reduced by half, the registration fee of a shilling per quarter upon imported grains and flour was remitted, and a substantial reduction was made in the tax upon earned incomes under £2000. The total of these remissions reached something like ten millions. In 1907 a step was taken toward an increased taxation of wealth by the levy of a graduated death duty on estates of £150,000 and upwards. The yield, however, was but a drop in the bucket and the necessity of heroic measures grew constantly more apparent.

THE LLOYD-GEORGE BUDGET

At last there came, a year ago, the Lloyd-George budget. The cold logic which lay behind that remarkable document was simply that more revenue must be had, and that, in the rebalancing of the tax burden, whatever is lopped off at one point must more than be made up at some other. A record-breaking public expenditure of £152,292,000 during the year just closing gave promise of being succeeded in the forthcoming year by an outlay of no less than £165,500,000. In 1908-09 the receipts of the Exchequer had aggregated £151,578,300, leaving a deficit of less than three-quarters of a million. It was computed, however, that on the basis of existing taxation the revenue for the coming year was not likely to exceed £148,390,000, which meant the almost certain prospect of a shortage, unprecedented except in time of war, amounting to considerably more than seventeen millions.

Inasmuch as the increase in expenditure was occasioned principally by the old-age pension system, the expansion of the navy, and other projects broadly concurred in by both of the great political parties, there was only the slenderest ground for supposing that the national outlay, once raised to the prospective level, would ever again fall below it. Rather the outlook was that the swift rise of expenditures would go on and that in years to come it would prove productive of other, and even larger, deficits. The immediate need was to provide for the seventeen millions, but the bigger problem was so to regenerate the fiscal system that, with never a resort to the tempting continental expedient of borrowing, and without an appreciable slackening of the pace at which the nation in recent years has been disencumbering itself of indebtedness, there should yet be available at all times a public revenue whose expansion might be depended upon to parallel the growth of the national outgo. That this meant fresh taxation, in some form, and a great deal of it, there was nobody, in Government or Opposition, to deny.

The resources of the British Exchequer fall into two groups, according as they are or are not derived from taxation. The aggregate receipts in 1908-09 were £151,578,300. Of this amount £127,550,000, or approximately 84 per cent., arose from taxation; the remaining twenty-four millions were the product of the postal and telegraph services, crown lands, Suez Canal shares, and a variety of minor items. The aggregate from taxation was distributed among the seven great categories of British imposts as follows: customs, £29,200,000; property and income tax, £33,930,000; estate duties, £18,370,000; house duty, £1,900,000; and land tax, £730,000. As taxes upon consumption, customs and excises must always fall with most weight upon the masses. The yield of these two groups of imposts in 1908-09 was £62,850,000, or somewhat less than one-half of the total Exchequer receipts from taxation. The burden imposed by the other five categories was borne predominantly, in some cases exclusively, by the well-to-do and the wealthy.

For the meeting of the impending deficit and, at the same time, the broadening of the basis of public revenue, the Lloyd-George budget, submitted to the House of Commons on April 29, 1909, proposed two expedients. The first, of a presumably temporary nature, was a reduction of three millions in the amount customarily deposited every year in the Sinking Fund, leaving the sum to be allocated to the service of the debt twenty-five millions instead of twenty-eight. The second, clearly intended to be permanent, comprised a series of far-reaching modifications in the existing tax system calculated to produce, in 1909-10, not less than £12,000,000; in 1910-11, £16,195,000; and ultimately, £17,700,000. Except the imposts on land values and on petrol, together estimated to yield less than a million pounds, the budget carried no taxes whatever which

were absolutely new. Increases of existing imposts, however, were many and large.

The changes introduced in the various categories may be summarized as follows: (1) Customs,—an increase of 8d. per pound on tobacco and of 3s. 9d. per gallon on potable spirits, with a new duty of 3d. per gallon on motor spirits (estimated to yield, in all, in 1909-10, £2,640,000); (2) Excise-spirit duties imposed as under customs, an increase on motor-car licenses, and a higher scale of duties on all grades of liquor licenses (with an estimated aggregate yield this year of £2,760,000); (3) Estate and death duties,—an increase from 1 to 2 per cent. in the settlement estate duty, together with a sweeping rearrangement of death duties so that the rates hitherto prevailing shall be applied to correspondingly smaller estates (to yield at present £2,850,000, and eventually £6,320,000); (4) Income tax,—the tax on earned incomes up to £3000 to continue unchanged, but on all unearned incomes, and on earned incomes of more than £3000, the rate to be raised from 1s. to 1s. 2d. in the pound; also a graduated super-tax of 6d. in the pound on incomes over £5000 (to yield £3,500,000, and eventually £6,300,000); (5) Land taxes,—comprising (a) a general increment value duty of 20 per cent., payable at the owner's death or when, by sale or lease, he actually realizes the unearned increment, (b) a 10 per cent. reversion duty upon any benefit accruing to a lessor from the termination of a lease, (c) a tax of 1s. in the pound on the capital value of undeveloped land (agricultural land being wholly exempt), and (d) a similar duty on land containing minerals (the four to yield but £500,000 in 1909-10, but ultimately somewhat more); and (6) Stamp taxes,—comprising duties on conveyances or transfers of property, on securities transferable by delivery, and on contract notes (to yield at present £650,000, and subsequently £1,450,000).

THE BUDGET NOT REVOLUTIONARY

Of the enormous amount expected eventually to be realized from the budget's imposts, practically a third is to be the product of the new estate and death duties, fully a third is to be contributed by the income tax, and, leaving out of account the liquor duties, which fall in no small measure upon the well-to-do, customs and excises are to play but an unimportant part. The budget was framed with the avowed purpose, not merely of building for the future by broadening the basis of productive taxation, but also of imposing upon wealth,—the landholding class in particular,—a larger proportion of the tax burden than it has been accustomed to bear.

Contrary to Lord Rosebery's dictum and the opinions of many more or less disinterested people, the budget is not revolutionary. It is clearly in harmony with the fundamental lines of fiscal development during the past sixty or seventy years. Prior to the break-down of the protective system at the middle of the last century British public revenues were derived almost wholly from customs and excises, or, in other words, from indirect taxes. Since about 1850, however, the tendency in Britain, as in most other nations, has been distinctly toward the increase of imposts which are direct in their operation. The income tax, introduced in England by Pitt in 1797, abolished in 1816, and revived by Peel in 1842, has become a cornerstone of the fiscal system, yielding more than any other single source of revenue. The death duties, remodeled in the nineties, have grown steadily in importance, and even the taxation of land, while involving, as contemplated in the budget, a fundamental shift in the method of reckoning values, is in itself no new thing. Without by any means confining his projects to imposts aimed at wealth, Mr. Lloyd-George has proposed what amounts simply to an advance, albeit a big one, on a road along which the nation has already been moving during at least two generations.

The social aspects of the Lloyd-George budget have already been presented in this REVIEW (August, 1909); likewise an account of the spirited national elections which the fiscal controversy precipitated (February, 1910). The financial year just closing has been the most remarkable on record. The budget was presented on April 29. During the larger part of the ensuing seven months the Finance bill, based on the budget resolutions, was debated in the Commons. The bill passed the lower chamber on November 4, by a vote of 379 to 149. Four days later it had its first reading in the Lords. On November 22 Lord Lansdowne finally moved its rejection, "until it has been submitted to the judgment of the country"; and on November 30 the rejection was carried by a majority of 275. Then followed the dissolution and the ordering of new elections. In the meantime the finances of the nation were in an anomalous state. The

resolutions of the Commons under which, as has long been customary in such cases, the new imposts were collected in anticipation of the final adoption of the budget, had failed for the first time on record to be confirmed by the subsequent action of the two houses. Strictly speaking, the imposts, having fallen short of legalization, could no longer be collected, and payers of the revenues in question were entitled to restitution. The native good sense of the British people, however, saved the day, and by tacit understanding the imposts continued to be paid, pending the eventual adjustment of the situation. Great Britain presents therefore the interesting spectacle of a nation which, with no legally adopted budget at all, has gone through an entire year without any impairment of her obligations and with no ill effects upon her public credit.

The adjustment remained to be made by the new Parliament, on the occasion of whose opening, February 21, the Speech from the Throne called attention to the fact that while the expenditure authorized by the last Parliament was being duly incurred the revenue required to meet it had not been provided by the imposition of taxation, so that "arrangements must be made at the earliest possible moment to deal with the financial situation thus created." Proposals, it was also announced, were to be laid before the Lords "to define the relations between the houses of Parliament, so as to secure the undivided authority of the House of Commons over finance." At the time of writing the immediate problems are (1) the adoption by the new Parliament of a retrospective budget for 1909-10 and a prospective one for 1910-11, and (2) an unequivocal definition of the fiscal prerogatives hereafter to be vested in the lower chamber.

Whatever the present outcome, Great Britain's future promises to be filled with fiscal controversy. In the first place, the issues involved in the Lloyd-George budget will not be easily or quickly settled. There is no guarantee that the Liberal program, once put in operation, will not be subjected to sweeping revision, or be discarded altogether, when the turn of the political wheel shall bring into power the elements at present in opposition. There is no nicer question within the entire range of practical statecraft than the adjustment of fiscal obligation among the social and industrial elements that compose a great nation, and one is not to imagine that any conceivable disposition of the Lloyd-George proposals today will withdraw them permanently from the field of public controversy.

THE TARIFF AGITATION

In the second place, there is the inescapable problem of tariff reform. On the whole, it is difficult to see that the results of the recent elections afford any convincing evidence of the alleged conquest of the nation by the protective principle. Still, there can be no question that in the years that lie immediately ahead the complicated tariff issue is going to be inextricably intertwined with every phase of the fiscal problem in the United Kingdom. The position which, in general, the partisans of Mr. Chamberlain have assumed is that the imposition of protective duties would not merely safeguard British industry against foreign competition but would produce additional revenue adequate to meet the deficits for which Mr. Lloyd-George has sought to make provision through the taxation of wealth.

THE NAVAL OUTLAY

There will be vexatious questions, too, respecting public expenditure. The Asquith government has started the nation upon a gigantic program of social reform. The end no one can foresee. The possibilities of cost are limitless. No less insistent are the rapidly growing demands in behalf of the military and naval establishments. According to a statement made by Mr. Lloyd-George in the Commons last April, the outlay upon *Dreadnoughts* alone in 1910-11 will be £11,000,000, and in 1911-12 £12,000,000 as compared with £5,109,000 during the current year. The naval estimates for 1910-11, published by the Admiralty on the 9th of the past month, provide for an expenditure of more than £40,000,000,—an increase of nearly five and a half millions over that of 1909-10. That the armament prospect is really formidable may be indicated by the fact that the London *Times* has lately advocated in all seriousness the early floating of a naval loan.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND

Other questions, of a more technical nature, are impending. One of them is the reconstitution of the Bank of England. Every patriotic Englishman regards the Bank as the greatest financial institution in the world. In some respects it is such. But it falls very far short of being a broadly national

establishment like the Bank of France or the Reichsbank of Germany. It is not so democratic in the range of its operations as the one, or so directly associated with public enterprise as the other. It is merely a private institution, with some public functions. It has established very few branches. Its operations are hampered by Peel's regulation to the effect that for all notes issued in excess of the authorized circulation the bank must maintain an unimpaired stock of gold. Furthermore, the Governor, whose control over the bank is of the most far-reaching nature, holds office for but two years, and there is an obvious lack of continuity of policy.

GOVERNMENT LOANS NOT POPULAR

Still another subject calling for attention is the conditions under which the British debt is carried by the investing public. At the close of 1908 it was estimated that consols representing the national debt, then amounting to £750,000,000, were held by only 200,000 persons (an average of £3750 each), whereas the French debt of £1,000,000,000 was held by 4,000,000 persons (averaging £250 each). British consols were, and still are, held principally in large blocks by banks and other corporations. Their purchase and sale are ordinarily prompted by circumstances affecting large quantities simultaneously, with the inevitable result of frequent and wide fluctuation. France, on the contrary, has wooed systematically the small investor. Bonds are issued in very small denominations (as low as 2 francs in case of the 3 per cent. Perpetual Rente); certificates of stock held are in all cases issued to the holders, and dividends are paid by coupons which can be cashed anywhere. The consequence is a remarkable stability of prices. The British Government issues no certificate to the stockholder, and transfers of stock can be effected only by personal attendance at the Bank of England in London or the Bank of Ireland in Dublin, or by the troublesome and expensive method of power of attorney. The fundamental reason why British consols are not popular with the masses, as the French rente unquestionably is, is that the British authorities have never made an effort to render their securities attractive to anybody except banks and other large holders. The prevailing undemocratic system is distinctly disadvantageous, and some day it will have to be modified.

THE NATION'S FINANCIAL STRENGTH

If, however, the problems are big, the resources of brain and brawn and purse are seemingly inexhaustible. In recent years there has been a good deal of foolish talk about the supposed decadence of Britain. Not a few Englishmen have themselves fallen into grave doubts on the subject. As a matter of fact, the nation never possessed elements of strength equal to those of to-day. A population of twenty millions in 1815 has increased to one of forty-four millions. In 1815 the nation's accumulated wealth was under £3,000,000,000; as late as 1845 it was only £4,000,000,000; in 1882, according to Mulhall, it was £8,720,000,000; to-day it is variously estimated at from £12,000,000,000 to £15,000,000,000. The yearly addition to this accumulated wealth in 1815 was £60,000,000; to-day it is £300,000,000, or six times as much.

The total foreign investment of British subjects, almost a negligible quantity a hundred years ago, is now estimated at £2,700,000,000, upon which there is an annual income of not less than £140,000,000. During the past six years the placement of British capital in foreign countries, largely suspended during the previous decade, has been resumed on a stupendous scale, greatly to the improvement of foreign trade, and distinctly to the encouragement of public and private thrift. At least a hundred millions were invested abroad in 1908, and approximately the same amount in 1909. These are merely a few of the more obvious evidences of the financial power of the nation. Of the ultimate ability of the British people to support a government twice as lavish as any yet on record there can be not the remotest doubt. Assuming that the principles of reasonable economy are to prevail, the one towering question is as to how the public burden may best be adjusted so that the 15 per cent. of the population which receives 50 per cent. of the national income and possesses more than 90 per cent. of the nation's aggregate wealth may be made to bear its just share.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WANTED—AN AMERICAN JUSTINIAN

THE February issue of the law magazine, the *Green Bag,* is unique in devoting its contents entirely to one subject. This subject, of the highest importance to the members of the legal profession and (did they but know it) of equal, if not greater, importance to the public themselves, is a proposal to arrange and publish an American *Corpus Juris,*—that is, a complete statement of the entire body of American law on the lines of Justinian's *Pandects.* The need of such a work has been felt through more than a century of our history. James Wilson, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and also a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, himself began the "Herculean task," and actually assembled 1702 statutes. Referring to the confused mass of statutes, as they then existed, he characterized them as "crowded with multifarious, sometimes with heterogeneous and disjointed circumstances and materials. Hence the obscure, and confused, and embarrassed periods of a mile with which the statute books are loaded and disgraced." During the years that have passed since Wilson's day our case-law has multiplied and our statute law has increased to such an extent that in 1910 a former president of the American Bar Association, the Hon. Frederick W. Lehmann, of St Louis, is constrained to describe the situation as follows:

> "If an American wishes to know the laws of his country he must turn to several hundred volumes of statutes, several thousand volumes of reports of adjudicated cases and almost as many more volumes of text-books, commenting upon and expounding the statutes and the cases . . . but *the rule by which he is to be governed in any transaction is somewhere in that confused mass of legal lore,* and it is so plain and so simple that it is his own fault if he does not find it or does not understand when he has found it."

Of other testimonies to the imperative need of such a work as that proposed, the *Green Bag* furnishes a-plenty. We can cite only a few. Gen. Thomas H. Hubbard, of New York, says:

> Statutes are enacted by thousands each year in the Federal and State legislatures. Judicial decisions do and must increase with bewildering rapidity, while courts . . . must attempt to reconcile all these. . . . Lawyers, courts, Legislatures, and the public are burdened with the effort to find what is the law and to apply it.

One of the ablest justices of the Supreme Court of the United States asserts:

> Every additional day of judicial duty brings to me a deeper conviction of the absolute necessity of some system of orderly and scientific classification of the great mass of confused precedents.

Judge Dillon frankly declares:

> This colossal body of case-law is wholly unorganized and even unarranged. . . . The infinite details of this mountainous mass in its existing shape,—bear me witness, ye who hear me,—no industry can master and no memory retain.

It must not be forgotten that, as hinted above, this matter is just as vital to the public as to the lawyers; for, so long as the latter admit their inability to determine what the law really is, litigation is bound to be needlessly expensive and delays unavoidable.

The plan for the preparation of the *Corpus Juris,* set forth in the *Green Bag,* is the result of many conferences between Dr. James De Witt Andrews, for a long time chairman of the American Bar Association's Committee on Classification of the Law; Dean George W. Kirchway of the Columbia Law School, and Lucien Hugh Alexander of the Philadelphia bar. These gentlemen propose to "block out, with the ablest expert advice obtainable, the entire field of the law under a logical system of classification, so that when the work is published the law on any particular point may be readily ascertained."

A board of editors, not exceeding seven, is to be formed, as also a board of associate editors. The former would have final control over every editorial matter about which differences of opinion might by any possibility arise; and the latter would be chiefly engaged in the preparation of the text. For the board of editors men like the late James Barr Ames, dean of Harvard Law School, and Prof. John Wigmore, of Chicago, are

suggested. There would be besides an advisory council of twenty or twenty-five of the strongest men in the profession, both on the bench and at the bar, men who would not have the time to devote to the actual work of authorship or editorship, but would give the producers of the work their best advice concerning any point on which they might be consulted. But a further board, by way of insuring accuracy, is provided for, namely, a board of criticism, to be composed "of at least 100 and perhaps 200 selected from among the ablest lawyers on the bench, at the bar, and in the law faculties."

It has been estimated that the *Corpus Juris* can be produced in about twenty volumes of 1000 pages each, and that the cost would be approximately $600,000, including payments to the various boards and expenses of printing and binding. For this sum 5000 sets of the work could be placed on the market (less 500 for review purposes) at the moderate price of $7.50 per volume, or $150 per set. It is believed that within two years of issue the 4500 sets would be sold and that there would be thereafter a steady sale, so that the work would more than pay for itself and leave a credit balance.

PRINCE RUPERT, B. C.—A CITY BUILT TO ORDER

THE city of Prince Rupert, in British Columbia, furnishes a good illustration of the old saying, "The exception proves the rule." Usually lines of railroad are constructed in order to provide transportation for settled districts and to connect populous cities. The case of Prince Rupert, says a writer in *Canadian Life and Resources,*

> is the most conspicuous instance in the history of the continent of this course of development being reversed; for here, instead of the railway being built for the city, the city is being created for the railway. Prince Rupert possesses the unique distinction of a city "made to order." The promptness and thoroughness with which the order is being filled is one of the most remarkable industrial facts of this generation.

Prince Rupert has known nothing of the process of evolution incidental to the growth of most cities. In the ordinary course of development the hamlet or the coast settlement grows into a village; after a few years the village becomes a town; time passes, and the town has developed into a city. Prince Rupert after an infancy of a few weeks jumped practically into manhood. The new Canadian city that is being built lies about halfway between Vancouver and Skagway, and about thirty miles south of Port Simpson, on the coast of British Columbia.

> Here an arm of the sea extends well inland, encircling what is known as Kaien Island, and shut off from the sweep of the ocean by Digby Island. Between these islands lies the main channel of the land-locked harbor. The inlet between the islands, and which reaches inland beyond them for a considerable distance, forms the harbor of Prince Rupert. . . . The entire harbor from the entrance to the extreme end, a distance of 14 miles, is entirely free from rocks or obstructions of any kind, and is of a sufficient depth to afford good anchorage.

It is owing to this excellent harbor that Prince Rupert came into existence. When the building of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway was decided upon, this harbor was chosen for its western terminus, a city with terminal facilities for a railway and wharves for steamships was called into existence; otherwise there would never have been such a place as Prince Rupert on the map of Canada. The town site covers 2000 acres, of which not a yard had been surveyed four years ago. To-day there is already a population of 4000, and it is growing rapidly. A dock 600 by 80 feet, a hospital, a schoolhouse to cost $30,000, a new post-office, and other necessary buildings are being constructed by the government. Soon a new steamship line to the Orient is to be inaugurated.

Prince Rupert is exceptionally well situated as regards the natural resources of the territory, both on land and in the water. We read:

> Nearly all of these British Columbia waters teem with commercial fish, for which there are wide and profitable markets. . . . Some of these fisheries close to Prince Rupert are now being operated. For instance, 12 miles south of the new city is the Skeena River, one of the most productive salmon rivers in the world, where approximately 200,000 cases of salmon are put up each canning season, exceeding in value $1,000,000, these canneries giving employment to at least 5000 people. Other similar industries will spring up along the coast. The basis of all this business will be Prince Rupert, and upon the completion of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway the products of these fisheries will be shipped east over that railway from Prince Rupert. Whaling is another industry that will have its basis here, as it has been found that more whales abound and have been taken in the waters off the coast of British Columbia . . . than in any other waters of the world.

During the winter whales abound in the waters of the harbor. The waters of this part of the coast are also well stocked with cod, herring, and oolachan.

The timber industry has a great future before it in the vicinity of Prince Rupert. Within 100 miles radius of the city there is much good spruce, besides hemlock and cedar. Lumbering operations have already begun, and a large sawmill costing $200,000 has been installed.

But, after all, it is not on the natural resources of the district that the future of Prince Rupert will depend. As the Canadian writer puts it:

> Down to the wharves of Prince Rupert, jutting out into the waters of the Pacific Ocean, will come the tracks of a railway that on the other side of the continent begins at the shore of the Atlantic, which traverses the whole width of the Dominion, and has direct connection with every center of Canadian population and activity. From the terminus on the Pacific will come and go steamships from the Old World of Europe and the still older world of the Orient. . . . This immense work of Canadian development will make of Prince Rupert one of the doorways of the Dominion through which will flow not only much of the trade of Canada but a large part of the trade of the Old Country with Japan, China, and India.

And to this remarkable made-to-order city will come ships from the East and from the West, bringing silks and rice and manufactured products and building material, and the thousand and one things needed in a young city, and taking away lumber of which it is estimated there is enough to supply twenty-five mills with all the logs they can cut and market for the next twenty-five years.

FRENCH CHARACTER AND THE RECENT FLOODS

UNDER the quaint title, "A Corner of the French Soul," M. Jean Finot contributes to *La Revue* (Paris) a somewhat remarkable study of the French character as tested by the trials incident to the recent floods. The article is, as might have been expected, laudatory throughout; and the reader is prepared for the glowing terms in which it is couched by a foreword which reads as follows:

> Vanquished after Sedan, France was considered as irretrievably lost. Her destiny seemed to be wholly in the hands of Germany. . . . What did Europe do? Sadly surprised, indignant or indifferent, but always inactive, she allowed events to take their course. But an invincible power rose on the horizon. Redoubtable and imperceptible, she formed numberless battalions and breathed into them a power of heroic resistance. Where there was nothing, suddenly there were soldiers full of courage. . . . France was saved. What was this ally, beneficent and all-powerful, that arrested the march of the enemy, and imposed on him, with admiration for the conquered, a recoil from useless and dangerous cruelties? It was the awakened soul of France.

Much, says M. Finot, has been written about the soul of France. Her adversaries themselves "have rendered homage to her secular virtues. . . . There is not a country in the world of which the acts and achievements are more admired or more extolled. The writers of all countries,—Germans, English, Slav, Spaniards, and Italians,—unite to vaunt her *esprit* and genius." Here was a great calamity that burst upon the country, deranging its life and profoundly stirring its conscience. "It is in adversity that we are especially able to judge the worth of our soul." France has known what it is to be immersed literally in misfortune. All the qualities of her soul, hidden or asleep, have awakened with a surprising force. And, "before the spectacle of an entire people facing the fury of the hostile forces of nature, the civilized world is inclined anew to respect France and the French."

In the concert of universal homage there is not a single discordant note; and "if one may allude," writes M. Finot, "to the appreciations which were especially dear to France, they were those of the German press." It has "comprehended the grandeur and the nobility of the efforts of an entire country. It has done more: it has noticed them with perfect tact." Max Nordau's remark is quoted, to the effect that "One must speak in the case of France of a triumph of organization, of order, and of love for one's neighbor." The same moralist's opinion in the *Vossische Zeitung* is cited: "The French people have given evidence of not only a very high civilization but also of a very high moral worth. Foreigners have, it is true, quitted the capital in danger; but there is

probably not a single Parisian who could be accused of similar desertion."

The foreign journals have recorded but few of the acts of heroism and self-denial on the part of the Parisians, old and young, great and small, victims and witnesses, women of the people and those of the leisured class. Before the common enemy there was no longer disunion. To the many dangers that threatened four millions of persons it was necessary to oppose a program born of a marriage of the firm will of government with the spirit of self-abnegation on the part of the whole population. Victor Hugo once spoke of certain days when "every citizen should be a soldier and every traveler a sailor." During the days of the recent disaster Paris was peopled with none but soldiers and sailors. M. Finot narrates some of the instances of heroism when the flood was at its worst:

Here some poor laborers had worked all day at the barriers. When offered compensation for the day's work they refused the money, one of them saying: "It is for solidarity, for fellowship." There a mariner, his clothes in tatters, who had just saved in his boat the tenth victim. Being congratulated on the success of his efforts, he replied: "It is my part to save men, as it is yours,—turning to a young woman in tears,—to weep." A servant brings her petty savings, amounting to forty francs, to a ruined family, and is away before the mother of the family surrounded by her little children can offer her thanks. The soldiers were not content with merely doing their duty: They distributed their rations to the starving children and slipped coins into the hands of the needy.

In the homes of the upper classes similar acts of self-sacrifice were to be witnessed. Hotels and apartments were converted into hospitals and refuges. Delicate women undertook the most thankless and unpleasant tasks, evincing a self-abnegation, a coolness, and an intelligence that were simply admirable. Organizations for the care of the sick and the needy came into being in the course of a few hours, with every appliance for carrying out the work entrusted to them.

Lessons of the Flood

To the Paris journal, the *Economiste Français,* of which he is the distinguished editor, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu has contributed a series of valuable papers on the losses and the lessons of the inundation. He says:

In the midst of all the cruel ravages of the flood, the calamity that has overtaken the proprietors of cottages and the petty tradesmen in the submerged quarters, many of whom have lost their all; the loss of work sustained by the laboring classes; the danger of epidemic, the disorganization of certain essential factors in the every-day life of the city,—such as the underground railways, and electric installations,—there is one great source of consolation, namely, the small loss of human life.

This may, indeed, be regarded as negligible when compared with, for instance, the volcanic eruption of Saint Pierre on the island of Martinique or the earthquake at Messina. It is too soon to make even an approximate calculation of the actual money loss entailed by the disaster. At the same time, M. Leroy-Beaulieu holds that it is "desirable to challenge many of the statements that have appeared to the effect that the national wealth has been seriously diminished, and that it will be necessary to contract large public loans to cover the expenditures involved." Whereas the London *Times* put the total money loss at a milliard of francs, and the *Financial Times* at 750 million francs, the *Economiste* editor considers that a half-milliard is nearer the correct figure. "Thus," he writes, "the calamity is one of those that a great and rich nation is able to sustain without succumbing, and without experiencing a prolonged financial embarrassment."

Reforesting the Republic

There is, however, another preventive measure, which M. Leroy-Beaulieu considers so important that he devotes a separate article to it; and this is nothing less than the reforestation of France. It is known that Roman Gaul was in great part covered with forests of oak, that in the Middle Ages and at the beginning of modern times the wooded areas were much more extensive than to-day. It is calculated that the wooded surface for the whole of France at the present time is but 17 per cent., which is much too little, representing as it does about nine millions of hectares. That this reduction of the wooded areas is an evil and an impoverishment is generally admitted; and that in consequence of this deforestation floods have become more frequent and more disastrous can easily be demonstrated. In the region of the south of France, where inundations are most frequent, sudden, violent, and devastating, woods are rare, and those that have survived are in poor condition. Several societies of foresters have taken up the question of reforesting the country, which is not without some difficulty as regards the rights of private owners. At the present moment a bill awaits the authorization of the French Par-

liament for the creation of about 31,000 hectares of new forests; and if each year a similar extension were made in about thirty years it would be easy to double the present extent of the domanial forests. The government would have to pay for the lands obtained from private owners, but the expense, according to M. Leroy-Beaulieu, need not exceed six millions of francs annually.

ARE WE LOSING THE USE OF OUR HANDS?

SIR FREDERICK TREVES writes in the *Nineteenth Century* for March an extremely interesting article under the above heading. It is the latest, but by no means the last, palinode sung over the gradual subjection of man to the machine. More and more the machine encroaches upon the domain of the human, and Sir Frederick Treves points out with much pathos the extent to which the supremacy of the machine is leading to the decadence of the race. That men have no longer many physical qualities which were developed in the stress and strain of their savage life, he says, is admitted:

> The man of to-day is inferior, in certain points, to the savage who made the flint implements. It is safe to assume that neolithic man was keener of sight and hearing and fleeter of foot than is the present inhabitant of these islands. He surely, too, possessed greater powers of endurance.

And the process of decadence is still going on. Sir Frederick Treves says the marvelous skill of the hand, which was developed by our ancestors, is being lost by their degenerate descendants. "We are compelled to own that the human being is,—in one particular at least,—showing signs not of advancement but of decay." Sir Frederick points out that typewriters destroy the use of fine caligraphy and sewing machines destroy fine sewing. In his own profession "surgery, as a pure handicraft, reached a point of perfection *prior* to these great changes, to which point it does not now attain."

This is due not so much to the machine as to the introduction of anæsthetics, which allows the surgeon to take time.

The simpler crafts are all disappearing. Spinning and weaving, for instance, have vanished, and with them have vanished the nimble sensitiveness of the hands of thousands of men and women in this country. The knitting machine has destroyed the training for the hand supplied by the knitting needle. Embroidery has gone the same road. By the Heilmann embroidery machine one inartistic person can guide from 80 to 140 needles, working simultaneously. Lace-making tells the same story; even the shoemaker, who is an artist in his way, has gone the same road:

> The old craftsman may mourn the loss of his finished steel, but he must be proud to think that even in the making of the uppers of a boot it needs some sixteen machines to do what was done by his two hands. A great press now cuts out the sole piece; heavy rollers take the place of the lapstone. Eyelet holes are fashioned at the rate of one hundred a minute. Buttonholes are made and finished by one machine, while the buttons are fastened on by another. A final engine actually links together with a stitch the two boots of a finished pair. Here, then, as in the daintier art of glove-making, is there an irreparable loss in the use of the hands.

Needle-making used to be a fine handicraft, needing the deftest use of the fingers. Now needles are all made by machines:

> With regard to pins, I need not say that one machine provides them, complete with heads and points, at the rate of about two hundred a minute. Wire enters the machine at one end and comes out as pins at the other. A still more ingenious apparatus sticks pins in formal rows into the paper. So here, again, there is no need of hands.

So it is with everything else. In carpentry, machines have almost superhuman powers. Paper-making and book-binding, as a means of hand culture, have practically ceased to exist. Wood-engraving and line-engraving have vanished, and with them have gone thousands of skilled artists. But it is not only in the finer uses of the hands that the machine is doing its devastating work. There are a

> thousand and one machines which are taking the place of human muscles. Handicraftsmanship is not concerned with the steam navvy or steam shovel, with the trench-excavating machine or the tree-feller, with the rock-drill or the pneumatic riveter. It only need be noted that these machines do not tend to improve the physical development of man.

We are evidently on the down grade, but Sir Frederick Treves says that it may be only for a period, and the decline is temporary. The loss is none the less great and regrettable.

THE GERMAN PRESS BUREAU

A MOST useful, impartial, and well-informed article is that which Mr. G. V. Williams (Eulenspiegel), one of the American correspondents at Berlin, contributes to the *Contemporary Review* on the subject of the German Press Bureau.

German newspapers, says Mr. Williams, are too numerous to be profitable. With few exceptions they cannot afford to maintain an expensive foreign telegraphic correspondence. The majority of the papers are accordingly almost wholly dependent on the semi-official news agency for the first news at home and abroad. The telegrams of the semi-official agency are submitted to the government for verification before being published, and hence are subject to delay, or even total suppression. It will therefore be seen that the Foreign Office exercises a very considerable control over the news service, and, in holding what is practically a monopoly, forces the newspapers to apply to the official channel, which is the Press Bureau.

The German Government, says Mr. Williams, keeps an extremely watchful eye on the press both at home and abroad.

The cuttings forwarded from German diplomatists and consuls abroad are sifted at the Press Bureau, which has also the duty of reading and clipping the German newspapers: on home and foreign topics for the Chancellor and on foreign affairs for the Emperor. The cuttings, pasted on sheets of paper, are laid before the Imperial Chancellor or the Foreign Secretary, and are returned to the Press Bureau with marginal notes denoting the reply to be given to eventual inquiries or information to be supplied to the representatives of the inspired Press.

The Press Bureau consists of three officials attached to and located in the Foreign Office.

They must be at their desks during fixed hours twice daily to receive the host of foreign and native journalists who call at the Wilhelm-Strasse. On the topic of the moment a concise statement is given verbally in approximately the same words to all callers, and questions, which may be freely put, ranging beyond the bounds of this *communiqué* are answered,—or not answered,—according to the instructions previously issued to the Press Bureau. Another important function of these hard-worked officials, which must not be forgotten, is the preparation of matter for the *North German Gazette,* which daily places a certain portion of its space at the disposal of the Foreign Office. Many of the inspired telegrams of the *Cologne Gazette,* too, are written in the Press Bureau.

Mr. Williams says:

To the government the Press Bureau is unquestionably a valuable instrument, for it is the keyboard of that great organ, public opinion, of which the newspapers are the stops. It is not German policy to ride too ruthlessly over public opinion at home, but to direct it gently, to guide it in the path desired by the government, and, above all, to take advantage of passing popular sentiment. To the newspapers, too, the Press Bureau is useful. As I have shown, under existing conditions in Germany, it is well-nigh indispensable. *Pace* those tilters at German windmills to whom everything appertaining to the Wilhelm-Strasse reeks of brimstone, I would aver that the Press Bureau is also useful to the foreign press. The maintenance of a center where a visit may be paid at definite hours to make inquiries on current questions is a practical arrangement.

Mr. Williams sums up as follows:

Even discarding our non-German glasses, through which the Press Bureau assumes a horrible, inquisitorial aspect, it must be admitted that the institution is reactionary and a hindrance both to the ripening of the German to political maturity and to the advance of the Empire in modern political development. But the Press Bureau is so much part and parcel of public life in Germany that much water will flow under the Spree bridges before it changes its character, still more before it is abolished. Before such a consummation is attained the German press will have to raise its standing by sheer force of its own efforts. It is well to remember that the German Press Bureau has kept abreast of the times far better than the German press.

THE RAILROADS VERSUS THE PANAMA CANAL

OUR gallant admiral Robley D. Evans is nothing if not practical; and anything that he has to say compels the attention of the American public. In *Hampton's Magazine* for March the Admiral puts it squarely up to the people of the United States to decide whether or no the railroads shall be allowed to neutralize the enormous advantages which should accrue to the country from the construction of the Panama Canal. In two preceding articles Admiral Evans indicated "the very serious uncertainties about the canal securing such considerable share in international trade as will make it profitable or even self-sustaining." His last paper deals with the "relation of the canal to transcontinental shipping between the eastern and western sections of the United States," which is, he believes, "the most important relationship of the canal to

the people of the United States." The points which he endeavors to make plain are, in his own words:

First, that the amount of international trade for the canal will be disappointingly small and entirely unremunerative.

Second, that the canal must compete with Suez, which can give differential rates, and can even make free, if the British Government chooses, any given trade, thus affording most effective protection to British shipping.

Third, that the Panama Canal will give a disappointingly small impetus to our foreign trade.

Fourth, that its chief benefits to us as a nation will be in lowering freights and equalizing transportation conditions between different sections of the country.

Fifth, that the methods and the success of the railroads in the past in suppressing water competition justify the fear that the same procedure will be invoked to prevent the canal doing its true work. Steamships using the canal may be controlled by the railroads and rates kept so high as to protect the rail routes in their high charges.

Sixth, that this sort of unrestrained and vicious competition can be prevented by rigorous regulative measures.

Seventh, that in order to assure real competition between the canal and the rail routes, the canal should be toll-free.

Eighth, that if it is made toll-free, and if the necessary regulations are enforced to assure absolutely free and honest competition, there will have to be built to handle this canal business a great number of fast cargo-carrying steamships.

Ninth, these steamships would sail under the American flag, and would be a most valuable auxiliary to our navy in time of war.

We are spending $400,000,000 in building the canal, and as the commercial justification for this expenditure will never be found in the increase of our foreign trade, it must be realized in benefit to our domestic commerce. Now, it is well known that water transportation is cheaper than rail, and where the competition is free and fair the water route will always take the business from the railroads. Admiral Evans points out that we have allowed the traffic to be driven from our rivers by the unrestricted competition of the railroads. Also, we have developed our continent thus far without thought of the possibilities of the greatest transcontinental trade route,—that via the Atlantic, the canal, and the Pacific. Properly managed, the canal should change all this. Notable reductions in time and in rates should follow the opening of the canal to traffic. To quote an illustration given by the Admiral:

The distance from New York to Los Angeles via the Panama Canal is, in round numbers, 5000 miles. A 6000-ton capacity steamer loaded with oranges or other fresh fruit steaming at a rate of only 12 knots per hour would cover this distance in eighteen days. . . . A ship of 16 knots speed, such as those now used in the West Indies fruit trade, would make the trip in just fourteen days. . . . *The time for rail freights across the continent varies from twenty to sixty days.*

With regard to rates, Admiral Evans quotes figures to show that a ship of 6000 tons net cargo capacity would take as many tons of freight as 240 freight cars of 25-ton capacity, and have to her credit on each trip from a Pacific port to New York "the neat sum of $360,000."

The Admiral disclaims any "populistic 'anti-railroad' sentiment on his part, but he holds that there is only too much evidence that the railroads "tend to charge all they can get rather than what they must have in order to earn fair returns." Laws must be enacted which will subject the railroads to heavy penalties for practices designed to ruin the ocean shipping. There must be rigid control of railroad rates, both State and interstate. Once such control was established and such laws enacted, capital would flow into the shipping business and steamships would rapidly multiply. A great fleet of fast cargo-carrying steamships would be at once needed; and these vessels "must be built in American yards, sailed under the American flag, and be subject to impressment as auxiliaries to the American navy in time of war." In the Admiral's view, this is one of the most important reasons why the canal must be made free, and why it is the duty of Congress to take early steps to make sure that it shall be free both as to tolls and as to the right of honest competition with the railroads.

As to the defense of the canal, Admiral Evans is of the opinion that the best, the only real, defense "which will permit its free use in time of war as well as in time of peace is a strong fleet of battleships in the Atlantic and another in the Pacific."

In reply to the question, How are such safeguards as those mentioned above to be thrown around this great Government work? the Admiral says the whole matter is in the hands of the people who vote. The servants of the people, elected by a majority of the people, have full power to enact such laws as shall make the canal, when completed, the great commercial benefit to the country which it ought to be; and if those now in office will not carry out the voters' wishes let the voters elect others who will.

ROSTAND'S "CHANTECLER"

IT is a long time since any drama produced on the stage has evoked such world-wide interest as has attended the presentation, at the Porte-Saint-Martin, Paris, of Edmond Rostand's symbolic play "Chantecler." The length of time occupied in its preparation,—more than seven years,—the fact that the characters represented included not a single human being, the remarkable ingenuity displayed in overcoming the mechanical problems incidental to the production, and above all the well-known genius of an author who had written "Cyrano de Bergerac" and "L'Aiglon,"—all combined to render the event unique in the annals of the theater.

"'Chantecler,'" writes M. René Doumic, himself an eminent critic and member of the French Academy, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes,* "is a very fine lyric poem. . . . Hitherto M. Rostand has shown himself more especially a dramatic writer endowed to an exceptional degree with the special gift of elaborating fine scenes, a virtuoso in words, and a juggler of astonishingly skillful rhyme." In all of M. Rostand's plays M. Doumic knows nothing more affecting than certain portions of "Chantecler." Here the author is "nobly and purely the poet, both in the general conception of his work and in all sorts of beauties of detail." The critic is obliged to add that the new play contains a few "execrable passages which are worse than the tirade of the nose in 'Cyrano' and than certain parts of the role of Flambeau in 'L'Aiglon.'"

EDMOND ROSTAND

(Whose latest play, "Chantecler," already a subject of world-wide discussion, was seven years in the writing)

A MAN IMPERSONATING A DOG

(How the actor of the dog part in "Chantecler" "made up")

Of the inception of the piece M. Doumic says:

"Chantecler" is scarcely a piece for the theater. This singular poem should bear as a subtitle "The Destiny of Poetry" or "The Confession of the Poet." . . . For the writer discloses to us the secret of his creative work. There is nothing more human than this piece, in which man does not appear on the scene and all the actors are animals. Why this incursion into the field of natural history and this recourse to ornithology? It appears that, so far as the author is concerned, it was not altogether a matter of choice. He himself has described how the first idea of his work came to him in a concrete form. In the course of his walks he stopped before an ordinary farmyard. This little world of chickens and ducks and geese

A TYPICAL SCENE FROM "CHANTECLER"

(The barnyard population gathering about "Chantecler," as he crows defiance to the hawk. Reproduced from *Illustration*, Paris)

appeared to him as an image of the greater world of humanity. From the actions and quarrels of the birds his imagination evoked the labors and quarrels of men; and the desire was born within him to give to this fancy the semblance of reality. . . . La Fontaine, following the form of the Esopic fable, produced

An ample comedy in a hundred acts diverse
Of which the scene is the universe.

He wrote the memoirs of his time, not his own. Rostand has put into "Chantecler" himself and the best of himself: his emotion before rural scenes, his experience of life, and his conception of art.

After the delivery of the prologue, which M. Doumic pronounces "excellent, creating a desire to see that which it announces," the curtain rises on the familiar scene of a farmyard. The clucking hens, the blackbird, the dog, and especially the hero, *Chantecler,* all symbolize human beings. When they speak, the sentiments they utter might be our own. The critic interprets them thus:

> The poultry-yard is one where people talk; and they talk prodigiously, exclusively of literature, for he who reigns there, *Chantecler,* is a poet. He is more than that: he is *the* poet. Nothing is of importance to him save his crow. It is his crow that makes him sovereign; and it is the secret of this crow that the hens that cluck so tenderly about him seek so anxiously to discover. . . . Near *Chantecler,* who is a simple, *naïf,* brave man and great poet, is the blackbird, whistling skeptically, ironically. He ridicules the faith of his companion, the faith that *Chantecler* has in himself. . . . He has come to Paris, and has perched on some trees of the boulevard near the small theaters. . . . If journals appear in the farmyard he will be king of the journalists. . . . He listens to the echoes, starts the news, speaks the *feuilleton,* and whistles the gossip. . . . He is at once the inseparable friend of *Chantecler* and his worst enemy.

A hen-peasant pursued by the hunters enters the yard, seeking a shelter and protection. *Chantecler,* attracted by her beautiful plumage, falls in love with her. This, the first act, is characterized by M. Doumic as "lively, brilliant, varied, full of verve and gaiety."

In the second act, which is the most beautifully staged of all, there is a conspiracy of the birds of the night, of whom the owl is leader. It is laid in the forest whither the pheasant has enticed *Chantecler.* The night-birds believe that if they could but get rid of him, their reign would be as absolute as his. We assist at the daybreak. At cock-crow the shadows disappear, the phantoms vanish, and noises from the neighboring village announce that the round of daily life has begun anew.

It is this moment that *Chantecler* chooses for the revelation of his secret to the pheasant. He believes that it is his crow that causes the dawn, that he is the ruler of the sun.

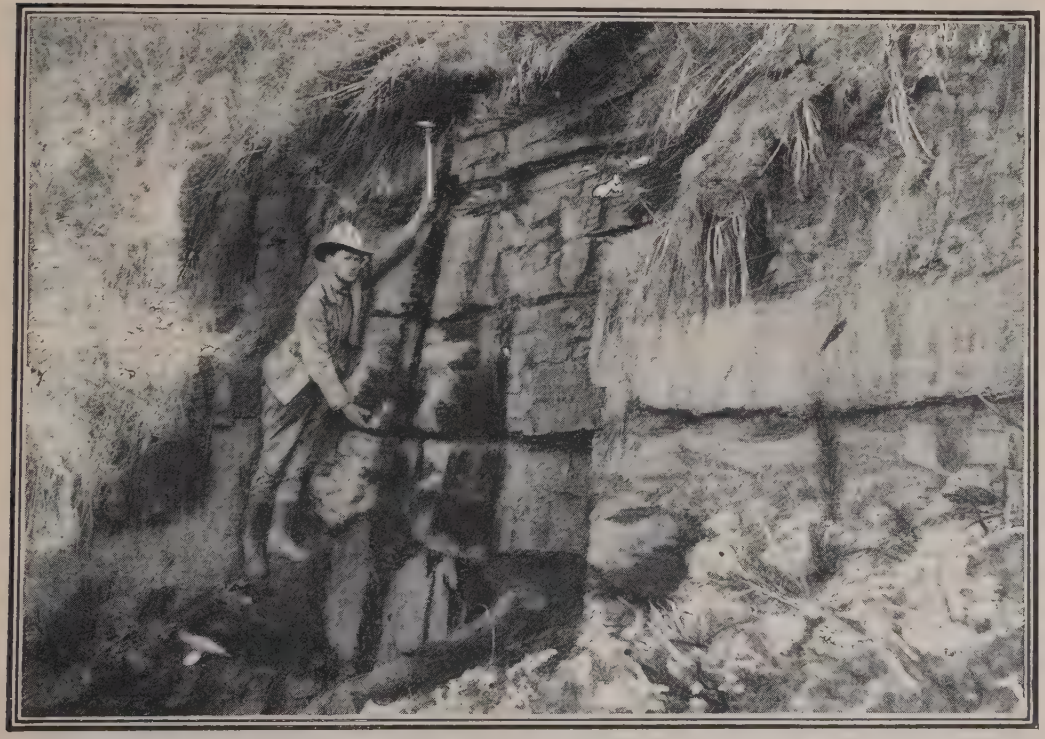
The third act witnesses a duel between *Chantecler* and a gamecock (who has been wooing the pheasant), the latter being killed.

In the fourth act *Chantecler,* who has been soothed after the combat by the pheasant, sleeps till after daybreak, and finds, to his horror, that the sun has risen without his having crowed. Life has no longer any pleasures for him. He and the nightingale make common cause of their dreams and their inquietudes, their joys and their misfortunes. A shot is heard, and the nightingale falls mortally wounded. But high up in the air is heard another nightingale's song. Continuing his interpretation of the symbolism of the play, a specimen of which is given above, the critic here says: "It is only the death of a poet. Others there are ready to take his place. Individual failures do not count in estimating the whole. One thing only is of importance: it is that poetry never dies in the world."

Of the main characters, the part of *Cantecler* is portrayed by M. Guitry; that of the dog by M. Jean Coquelin; of the pheasant by Mme. Simone; of the blackbird by M. Galipaux. Only MM. Galipaux and Coquelin are, in the judgment of M. Doumic, entitled to praise for their performances.

ALASKA'S CONTRIBUTION TO OUR COAL SUPPLY

IN the issue of the REVIEW for July, 1909, Mr. Alfred H. Brooks, of the U. S. Geological Survey, in his paper entitled "The Alaska of To-day," made this remarkable statement: "In the matter of coal resources Alaska has no competitor. Its



COAL OUTCROP, COOK'S INLET, ALASKA

(Seam about 9 feet thick)

store of high-grade fuel cannot be equaled in quality west of the Rockies. In fact, to find anthracite and bituminous coal which compares in fuel value with that of Alaska one must come east to Pennsylvania. . . . A surveyed area of about 100 square miles is known to be underlain by these coals. . . . A rough estimate of quantity within this surveyed area gave some six billion tons. . . . It is fair to assume that this coal is worth a dollar a ton, which would make its total value about forty times as great as the entire gold output of Alaska to the present time." In the *National Geographic Magazine* for January last this same writer and expert gives some additional notes on the coal and other mineral wealth of the Territory.

Of high-grade coal there are, it appears, two known areas,—the Bering River field, in the Controller Bay region, and the Matanuska field, north of Cook Inlet. The former lies about 25 miles from tidewater and embraces 26.4 square miles underlain by anthracite and 20.2 square miles by bituminous coal. These fields may possibly extend into the unsurveyed high ranges to the northeast. Of the quantity and quality of the coal Mr. Brooks reports:

> Coal-beds varying from 6 to 20 feet in thickness are exposed in this region with some local swellings, giving a much higher maximum thickness. In quality the coals vary from an anthracite, with 84 per cent. of fixed carbon, to a semi-bituminous, with 74 per cent. of fixed carbon, and include some varieties that will coke. . . . In the absence of railways no mines have been developed, though a small output from one bed has been taken to the coast in barges.

The Matanuska coal-field is about 25 miles from tidewater, at Knik Arm, which is an embayment of Cook Inlet; but as the inlet is frozen in winter, the nearest port to which the coal could be carried is on Resurrection Bay, a distance of 150 miles from the field. Mr. Brooks' description of the Matanuska coals is as follows:

> The known commercially valuable coals of the Matanuska field vary in quality from a subbituminous to a semi-bituminous, with some anthracite, and are included in folded and faulted Tertiary shales, sandstones, and conglomerates, aggregating 3000 feet in thickness. The coal-beds vary from 5 to 36 feet in thickness, and the total area known to be underlain by coal aggregates 46½ square miles. However, as much of the field is covered by gravels, and none of it has been surveyed in detail, the coal-bearing area may be much larger. The total area of what may prove to be coal-bearing rocks is approximately 900 square miles. Up to the present time there has been no means of transporting this coal to market, so that no mining has been done, but many beds have been opened in prospecting.

As the anthracite from both fields has no equivalent on the Pacific Coast, it ought to be put into the San Francisco and other Pacific Coast markets at a cost much below that of Eastern coal; while for use on warships and for other purposes for which a smokeless steaming coal is required the Bering River semi-anthracite and some of the semi-bituminous from Matanuska should command a higher price than any coal now being mined on the Pacific Coast.

Besides coal, peat is found to be very widely distributed in Alaska. At present there is no information on which to base an estimate, but as this useful fuel is met with in nearly every part of the Territory, and as the great tundras to the north appear to be underlain by peat of greater or less thickness, the supply must be enormous, and Mr. Brooks thinks it may even exceed that of the entire United States.

As illustrating the relative values of the coal and gold deposits of Alaska, indicated in the passage at the head of this article, it may be interesting to our readers to quote here a table which Mr. Brooks gives of the mineral production of Alaska from 1880 to 1908:

Gold	$142,030,637
Silver (commercial value)	1,120,562
Copper	4,265,136
Tin	92,640
Coal	315,079
Marble and gypsum	148,647
	$147,972,701

Vast as this sum is, it represents only a small portion of the enormous mineral wealth awaiting discovery in this far-off region; and that the value of the Alaskan coal-fields is "about forty times as great as the entire gold output" is a fact so tremendous that the mind is scarcely able to grasp its significance. Unfortunately, the full development of the mineral wealth of Alaska waits, as stated above, on improvements in means of communication and transportation. The present expensive and uncertain modes of travel, by ocean or river boats, or by sleds, must give place to railway transportation. When railroads shall connect the mineral deposits with open ports on the Pacific seaboard mining operations will advance by leaps and bounds, and that bugbear of the economists, the exhaustion of our coal-supplies, will be placed outside the realm of possibility for thousands of years to come.

CHILE'S WEALTH IN NITRATE DEPOSITS

THE Chilean Government is wise in its day and generation. Owning the largest deposits of sodium nitrate on the face of the globe, it retains possession of all the nitrate lands on the public domain and sells them at public auction as occasion demands. It also levies an export tax amounting to about 56 cents United States money on each quintal (= 101.4 pounds) of nitrate, which produces the largest item in its list of revenues. In 1908 the quantity exported reached 20,336,122 quintals; the price, landed in New York or in European ports, was $40 to $50 per long ton, and the total value of the exported nitrate was $85,350,882. Truly an enviable asset for any country to have on its list!

Chile extends for nearly 3000 miles along the west coast of South America, from Peru southward to Cape Horn. It is traversed by the main range of the Andes on the east and by the Coast range on the west; and the basin region between is in certain parts many miles in width. This basin region is particularly well defined in northern Chile and is known as the *pampa.* It is extremely arid and rain is very rare,—frequently none falls for three or four years. It is here, in the provinces of Tarapacá and Antofagasta, that the principal nitrate deposits occur; others of less extent have been found to the north and to the south of this area. The origin of these deposits has long been a fruitful subject of discussion. In the *Journal of Geology* for January-February Mr. R. A. F. Penrose, Jr., enumerates some of the hypotheses that have been suggested to explain the presence of the nitrogen:

Its derivation from organic matter, and especially from guano (regarded as the most probable).

The generation by storms in the Andes of nitric acid which, coming into contact with mountain limestone, has formed calcium nitrate, and this by contact with sodium salts has been converted to sodium nitrate.

Nitrogenous fumes from the volcanoes in the Andes.

Decayed vegetation in salt-water swamps and lagoons once occupying the site of the present pampa.

Though the nitrate deposits of Chile were propably known in quite ancient times, they are supposed to have been first operated on any considerable scale by one Hector Bacque, a Frenchman, about 1826. In the following fifty years his enterprise was followed by many others; and, as the industry grew, Bolivia imposed an export tax on nitrate shipped from her territory, which ultimately involved her in a war with Chile which lasted for four years. At the close of the war (1883) mining operations were pursued more actively than before; capital poured into the country, the most prominent foreign operator being Mr. G. B. Chase, of the United States, and Col. J. T. North, of England, who was popularly known as "the Nitrate King."

A NITRATE MINE

Crude nitrate is known by the Chileans as *caliche;* its mineralogical name is soda niter or nitratine, and commercially it is often known as Chile saltpeter, to distinguish it from plain saltpeter, or niter, which is potassium nitrate. No deposits of perfectly pure sodium nitrate are found, the percentage of that substance ranging from a very small quantity to as much as 70 per cent. of the whole mass. In the various deposits is found a small but very constant quantity of sodium iodate, an important material owing to its commercial value.

The mining is done in surface openings, the capping of *costra* (sand, clay, gravel, and rock fragments) being thrown aside and the nitrate raised to the surface. Sometimes,

when the *costra* is hard, the miner finds it easier to excavate under it instead of removing. The deposits vary considerably in thickness, 1 to 1½ feet being common, while 4 to 6 feet are very unusual.

The crude nitrate is hauled in carts or on tramways from the mines to the refineries, where it is coarsely crushed and the nitrate separated from the impurities by a process of leaching with hot water. The refined product usually contains about 95 per cent. of sodium nitrate, which is the standard. . . . Sometimes a still higher grade product is made for special purposes. The nitrate is put in large sacks and sent to the coast for shipment to various parts of the world. Sodium nitrate is deliquescent, so that when exposed to the moist air on board ships it cakes and the sacks stick together, often forming a solid mass, which has to be taken out of the ships with picks. The method used in extracting the nitrate is very crude, only from 60 to 70 per cent. of it being saved.

The chief ports for the shipment of nitrate from Tarapacá province are Iquique on the south and Pisaqua on the north. An English corporation owns a railway line running inland from Iquique to the Tarapacá *pampa*. The large nitrate producers form a combination (Combinación Salitrera), which limits the output and apportions to each company a certain production annually. The total production in Chile in the year 1830 was 8348 long tons; in 1900 it was 1,473,091, and in 1908 about 1,808,986 long tons.

Chile nitrate is used for several purposes,—in the manufacture of niter for gunpowder, in the manufacture of nitric acid, an important factor in nitro-glycerine, dynamite, and other explosives, and most largely as an agricultural fertilizer.

The Chilean Government does not have to worry itself over a probable early exhaustion of its nitrate deposits. Its official board of engineers reported in 1908 that there were 4,483,000,000 quintals in sight,—a quantity sufficient at the present rate of exportation to supply the entire world's consumption for 130 years. These figures applied to the two provinces of Tarapacá and Antofagasta only. No estimate can be formed of undiscovered deposits in many other districts, some of which may be considerable.

HALLEY AND THE DISCOVERY OF HIS COMET

HALLEY'S discovery of the comet that bears his name is one of the landmarks in the history of astronomy. The approaching reappearance of the comet lends interest to the story of Halley's work and of his relation to Newton. In the course of an article in *Velhagen und Klasing's Monatshefte*, Dr. M. Wilhelm Mayer says:

Edmund Halley, whose name this comet has borne for well-nigh 250 years, was a contemporary and compatriot of the great Newton. Halley, one of the most versatile and lucid minds of his time, worked out a whole series of fundamental problems in the most varied scientific fields. He was the first one among those sent to Saint Helena by the British Government for the purpose to catalogue the stars of the Southern Hemisphere, of which, up to that time, there were scarcely any records in existence. He was the first to observe and measure the variations of the magnetic needle in the different zones; he investigated the phenomena of ebb and flood tide; wrote learned disquisitions on annuities; showed how diving-bells might be constructed; was temporarily in command of a man-of-war; traversed the whole extent of Europe; built the naval port of Trieste, and was intrusted with secret affairs of state. At that time the son of a soap manufacturer could still be so versatile and yet so widely renowned.

His chief distinction, however, one which associates him with our comet, was his "discovery" of Newton's great work treating of gravitation as "the mistress of all motion in the universe," of that fundamental work upon which to-day the whole of astronomical science is based.

Newton, a secluded thinker, had this work lying in his desk for a long time in completed form. He spoke of it incidentally to his friend, who asked for the loan of it in order to peruse it. Recognizing the immense significance of the work he urged his friend to allow him to publish it, to which Newton was rather slow in assenting. Scholars of Newton's stamp are never through with their works. Something always remains to be corrected, completed.

Thus the "Principia" was published in 1686, headed by a poem by Halley, which concluded with the words:

"Nec fasest proprius mortali attingere divos."

Newton had demonstrated that every body in the universe exercises upon every other body an attraction directly proportional to their masses and inversely proportional to the square of their distance, and that all the motions that we observe in the heavens may be explained by this one law.

If the *comets*, those inconstant wanderers

of the sky, were material substances, and not mere spectral semblances, they, too, must move in accordance with Newton's principles; by means of these principles would their secret have to be disclosed. Newton himself had indicated the mathematical road by which this could be attained. But it was Halley who first practically entered it, and of the comets whose apparent course among the stars he found recorded in the chronicles, he "computed" twenty-four,—that is, he determined their real courses from their apparent ones. He found that they all described parabolas around the sun, as Newton's law necessitated; that, consequently, they were celestial bodies like all the rest, whose influence upon the destinies of mankind was beginning to be gradually relegated to the fabled realm of superstition.

Among those twenty-four there were three, which, according to Halley's calculation, had described about the same course around the sun; these were the comet of 1682, which Halley himself had observed, and those of 1607 and 1531. The intervals between the three were of nearly equal length,—about seventy-five years. It could thus no longer be doubted that it was one and the same comet that returned to the sun each time by the same path within that span. This comet, then, had not described a parabola like the other comets, in which a return to the sun is impossible, but an *ellipse*, which, besides the hyperbola, the circle, and the straight line, is the only mathematical figure in which, under the given conditions, a body can move. All the planets, and therefore our earth as well, move, as is well known, in such ellipses around the sun; only that the ellipse of this comet which thenceforth bore Halley's name is very much more elongated.

EDMUND HALLEY
(From an old painting)

WHERE SOME OF OUR WOOL COMES FROM

"IF the animals [sheep] were assembled in a gigantic drove, twelve abreast, they would reach across the continent from New York to San Francisco." When the eye lights on a passage like this in a magazine article the reader is impelled to explore further,—in the present case with profitable results. The quotation cited is from a paper in the March *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics, on "The Wool Industry in the Americas," and applies to the sheep of Argentina. The writer considers the subject alike from the historical, commercial, and economic points of view.

In Great Britain, Germany, and in the Eastern States of North America, the raising of sheep is a profitable industry on account of the mutton, not because of the wool. In South America the chief value of the animal is its fleece; and fortunes have been made where not a pound of mutton has been exported. The greatest profits are, of course, made where both the wool and the carcass are utilized.

When the word "wool" is mentioned one naturally thinks of the fleece of the sheep; but the *Bulletin* article reminds us that wool is not a product of the sheep alone.

It may be wool, although it comes from the backs of several varieties of goats, from the camel, the alpaca, the guanaco, the vacuña, or the llama, as well as from the sheep. It is the thing itself and not the zoological classification of the animal which determines whether the fiber is wool, hair, or fur. . . . The line between these three classes is necessarily vague and indistinct. For instance, the under covering of the camel may be camel's wool or camel's hair; and so we have alpaca hair or alpaca wool. From the sheep there are many varieties of wool: long and short, straight and curly, coarse and fine, and, what is generally more important that any of these, varieties in the serrations or imbrications appearing on the surface of the fibers. . . . It is these imbrications which made it possible for the primeval savage to produce cloth from wool. . . . Without other tools than a round stone, cloth may be

LOADED LLAMAS, THE PERUVIAN SHEEP, BEASTS OF BURDEN OF THE SOUTH AMERICAN HIGHLANDS

made from wool simply by spreading it out evenly and then hammering it while moist. . . . This, of course, is felt undoubtedly the first cloth.

It is in the fine merino wools that these imbrications are most numerous, pointed, and acute, numbering as many as 2800 per inch. Felt made therefrom will wear like iron. In mohair the imbrications disappear almost entirely. In considering wool it must be borne in mind that three different kinds of cloth are made from it,—felts, woolens, and worsteds. Felt is made from wool or fur in the mass; woolens and worsteds are spun from threads. Further, the wool employed in the manufacture of woolens is carded; that for worsteds is combed.

The sheep that has modified the sheep of all other countries is the Spanish Merino, of which "the wool is long, soft, and twisted into silky looking spiral ringlets." The British Islands can claim the largest number of valuable wool-producing breeds, of which the largest and heaviest fleeced is the Lincoln. Some of these fleeces weigh from 18 to 20 pounds, with a staple 20 inches long. South America possesses, in addition to the domestic sheep introduced into the Western Hemisphere by the early English, Spanish, and Portuguese settlers, a group of wool-bearing animals native to the country. This group is the *auchenia,* which comprises four species,—the alpaca, the guanaco, the

TAKING ARGENTINE WOOL TO MARKET

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SHEARING SHEEP BY MACHINERY IN THE GREAT AMERICAN WEST

llama, and the vicuña. The alpaca and the llama were domesticated by the native Indians long before the advent of the Spaniards into South America. The guanaco, found from the equator south to Tierra del Fuego, is about the size of an English red deer. The llama is somewhat smaller and is a habitant of Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia. Both of these animals, esteemed mainly for food and as beasts of burden, yield a fine quality of wool or hair, ordinarily sold as alpaca. The vicuña is about the size of a fallow deer, lives in the mountains of Bolivia, Peru, and Ecuador, and seldom descends below 13,000 feet. It is practically a wild animal and has an exceedingly delicate wool, worth nearly twice as much as alpaca. The alpaca, like the domestic sheep, is kept in flocks. In the mountains of Peru and Bolivia it is driven from pasture to pasture, being brought down to the villages to be sheared. The wool varies from 2 to 6 inches in length and is of a fine, lustrous quality. These and the domestic sheep are the animals from which Spanish-America derives its wealth in wool. The *Bulletin* gives the following interesting data concerning the number of sheep and the exports of wool for the various countries of the South American continent:

In Argentina for the season of 1849-50 the wool clip was 17,600,000 pounds. In 1899-1900 it had increased to 525,800,000 pounds, or about one-fourth of the world's production. In 1908 Argentina possessed 67,211,754 sheep, a total exceeded by Australia alone. The exports of wool for 1908 aggregated 386,183,600 pounds.

The mainland of Patagonia and the archipelago of Tierra del Fuego are divided between Chile and Argentina; and over the entire country the sheep industry is spreading. The province of Santa Cruz, which includes the Argentine part of Patagonia, but not Tierra del Fuego, produced 19,800,000 pounds of wool in the season of 1908-09. The territory tributary to Punta Arenas has about 4,000,000 sheep; and in the whole of the Chilean territory of Magellan there are about 1,900,000.

From Peru 4,000,000 to 6,000,000 pounds of alpaca wool and nearly 10,000 pounds of vicuña wool are exported annually. Ecuador and Bolivia are also alpaca-exporting states.

The pioneers in the industry in the region of the Strait of Magellan were mostly Welsh and Scotch, who are extending their energies over all the available grass lands, so that it will be but a short while until there are 20,000,000 sheep in this the most southern territory of the world.

The *Bulletin* writer gives also some figures for the United States. It appears that

on January 1, 1910, there were 57,216,000 sheep in the country, with a value of $233,644,000. The production is estimated at 400,000,000 pounds of sheep's wool and about 1,000,000 of mohair and goat hair. Since 1900 there has been an enormous increase in the wool-manufacturing industry, especially in the manufacture of worsteds.

HAS THE PRESS LOST ITS POWER?

THAT the hold of the press on popular confidence has unquestionably been loosened during the last forty or fifty years is the opinion expressed by Mr. Francis E. Leupp in the *Atlantic Monthly* for February. Mr. Leupp is one of our veteran journalists, having been for many years, before he became Commissioner of Indian Affairs, the Washington correspondent of the New York *Evening Post*. He has, therefore, a practical acquaintance with his subject which gives his views additional weight. The airy dismissal of some proposition as "mere newspaper talk" is heard, he says, at every social gathering; and it would seem that "in our common-sense generation nobody cares what the newspapers say." As to why an institution so full of potentiality as a free press does not produce more effect than it does, and why so many of its leading writers today find reason to deplore the altered attitude of the people toward it, he suggests the following reasons:

The transfer of both properties and policies from personal to impersonal control; the rise of the cheap magazine; the tendency to specialization in all forms of public instruction; the fierceness of competition in the newspaper business; the demand for larger capital, unsettling the former equipoise between counting-room and editorial-room; the invasion of newspaper offices by the universal mania of hurry; the development of the news-getting at the expense of the news-interpreting function; the tendency to remold narratives of fact so as to confirm office-made policies; the growing disregard of decency in the choice of news to be specially exploited, and the scant time now spared by men of the world for reading journals of general intelligence.

It will be noticed that of these ten causes for the alleged decline of the press, nine are laid at the doors of the newspaper and periodical press, and one concerns the reading public itself. We are unable, through lack of space, to give Mr. Leupp's observations on more than a few of the more important of them. The transfer of the newspapers from personal to corporate ownership was inevitable, being "not a matter of preference, but a practical necessity."

The expense of modernizing the mechanical equipment alone imposed a burden which few newspaper proprietors were able to carry unaided. Add to that the cost of an ever-expanding news service, and the higher salaries demanded by satisfactory employees in all departments, and it is hardly wonderful that one private owner after another gave up his single-handed struggle against hopeless financial odds, and sought aid from men of larger means. . . . The capitalists who were willing to take large blocks of stock were usually men with political or speculative ends to gain, to which they could make a newspaper minister by way of compensating them for the hazards they faced.

These newcomers were not idealists, like the founders and managers of most of the important journals of an earlier period. They were men of keen commercial instincts. They naturally looked at everything through the medium of the balance-sheet. . . . Principles? Yes, principles were good things, but we must not ride even good things to death. The noblest cause in creation cannot be promoted by a defunct newspaper, and to keep its champion alive there must be a net cash income. The circulation must be pushed, and the advertising patronage increased. More circulation can be got only by keeping the public stirred up. Employ private detectives to pursue the runaway husband, and bring him back to his wife; organize a marine expedition to find the missing ship; send a reporter into the Sudan to interview the beleaguered general whose own government is powerless to reach him with an army. Blow the trumpet, and make ringing announcements every day. If nothing new is to be had, refurbish something so old that people have forgotten it.

Mr. Leupp goes on to say that "in the old-style newspaper, in spite of the fact that the editorial articles were usually anonymous, the editor's name was so well known to the public that

we talked about "what Greeley thought" of this or that, or wondered "whether Bryant was going to support" a certain ticket, or shook our heads over the latest sensational screed "in Bennett's paper." . . . We knew their private histories and their idiosyncrasies; their very foibles sometimes furnished our best exegetical key to their writings.

When a politician whom Bryant had criticised threatened to pull his nose, and Bryant responded by stalking ostentatiously three times around the bully at their next meeting in public, the readers of the *Evening Post* did not lose faith in the editor because he was only human, but guessed about how far to discount future

utterances of the paper with regard to his antagonist. When Bennett avowed his intention of advertising the *Herald* without the expenditure of a dollar, by attacking his enemies so savagely as to goad them into a physical assault, everybody understood the motives behind the warfare on both sides, and attached to it only the significance the facts warranted. Knowing Dana's affiliations, no one mistook the meaning of the *Sun's* dismissal of General Hancock as "a good man, weighing 250 pounds, but . . . not Samuel J. Tilden." And Greeley's retort to Bryant, "You lie, villain! willfully, wickedly, basely lie!" and his denunciation of Bennett as a "low-mouthed, blatant, witless, brutal scoundrel," though not preserved as models of amenity for the emulation of budding editors, were felt to be balanced by the delicious frankness of the *Tribune's* announcement of "the dissolution of the political firm of Seward, Weed & Greeley by the withdrawal of the junior partner."

The mazagine took on a new character about twenty years ago, leaping fearlessly into the newspaper arena, and seeking its topics in the happenings of the day.

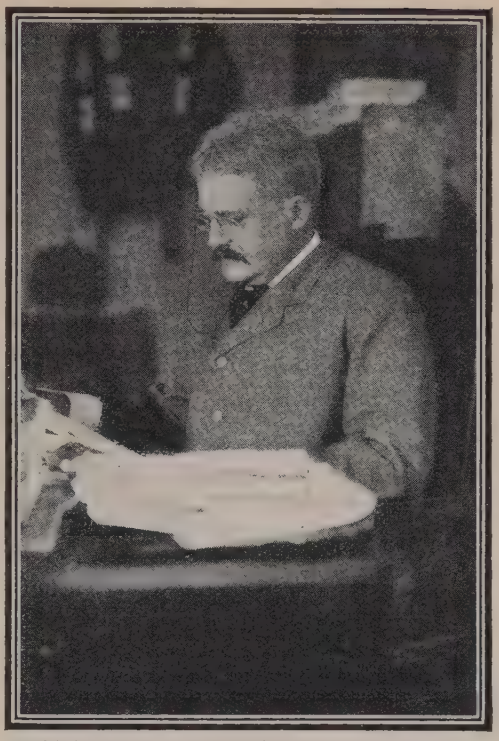
It raised a corps of men and women who might otherwise have toiled in obscurity all their lives, and gave them a chance to become authorities on questions of immediate interest, till they are now recognized as constituting a limited but highly specialized profession. One group occupied itself with trusts and trust magnates; another with politicians whose rise had been so meteoric as to suggest a romance behind it; another with the inside history of international episodes, another with new religious movements and their leaders, and so on.

What was the result? The public following which the newspaper editors used to command when they did business in the open, but which was falling away from their anonymous successors, attached itself promptly to the magazinists.

As illustrating how the esteem of the people for the press is weakened through the intense competition between newspapers, the recent Peary-Cook controversy is cited:

One newspaper syndicate having, at large expense, procured a narrative directly from the pen of Cook, and another accomplished a like feat with Peary, to which could "we, the people," look for an unbiased opinion on the matters in dispute? An admission by either that its star contributor could trifle with the truth was equivalent to throwing its own exploit into bankruptcy. So each was bound to stand by the claimant with whom it had first identified itself, and fight the battle out like an attorney under retainer; and what started as a serious contest of priority in a scientific discovery threatened to end as a wrangle over a newspaper "beat."

"Speed before everything" is perhaps the most noticeable feature of modern newspaper management; and this has brought about changes both in editorial writing and in news-getting. In the department of special correspondence the change is most patent:



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HON. FRANCIS E. LEUPP

At an important point like Washington, for instance, the old corps of writers were men of mature years, most of whom had passed an apprenticeship in the editorial chair, and still held a semi-editorial relation to the newspapers they represented. . . .

When, in the later eighties, the new order came, it came with a rush. The first inkling of it was a notice received, in the middle of one busy night, by a correspondent who had been faithfully serving a prominent Western newspaper for a dozen years, to turn over his bureau to a young man who up to that time had been doing local reporting on its home staff. Transfers of other bureaus followed fast. A few were left, and still remain, undisturbed in personnel or character of work. . . . The bold fact was that the newspaper managers had bowed to the hustling humor of the age. They no longer cared to serve journalistic viands, which required deliberate mastication, to patrons who clamored for a quick lunch. So they passed on to their representatives at a distance the same injunction they were incessantly pressing upon their reporters at home: "Get the news, and send it while it is hot. Don't wait to tell us what it means or what it points to; we can do our own ratiocinating."

Is the public a loser by this obscuration of the correspondent's former function? I believe so.

An inquiry was made by Dr. Walter Dill Scott into the reading habits of 2000 representative business and professional men. He found that most of them spent not more than

fifteen minutes daily on their newspapers. Some spent less, so that the average was five to ten minutes. Is this scant regard for his newspaper due to the fact that the ordinary man of affairs no longer believes half that it tells him? Does this condition indicate that the newspapers have so perverted the public taste with sensational surprises that it can no longer appreciate normal information normally conveyed?

There is one phase of this business that does not appear on the surface. The foregoing criticisms have all been made from the point of view of the citizen of fair intelligence. What about the other element in the community, which is drawn toward the cheapest, lowest, daily prints,—which during the noon hour and at night devours all the tenement tragedies, the palace scandals, the incendiary appeals designed to make the poor man think that thrift is robbery? Over that element the vicious paper is exercising a powerful sway, which is not likely to be soon relinquished.

NEWSPAPERS THAT DO NOT GIVE THE NEWS

MR. LEUPP'S article in the February *Atlantic* on "The Waning Power of the Press" is followed in the March number by an equally forceful criticism from the pen of Prof. Edward A. Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, who holds that for many of the faults of the papers, such as their sensationalism, their exploitation of the private affairs of prominent persons, and their embroidering of facts, the American people themselves must be blamed. But, he adds, "there is just one deadly, damning count against the daily newspaper as it is coming to be,—namely, *it does not give the news.*" Good "live" news, "red-hot stuff," is "deliberately distorted or suppressed." This condition of the daily press has been brought about by three economic developments in the field of newspaper publishing: (1) The daily newspaper in the large cities has become a capitalistic enterprise. (A million dollars will not begin to outfit a metropolitan newspaper.) (2) The growth of newspaper advertising. (3) The subordination of newspapers to other enterprises.

Professor Ross gives some striking illustrations of the suppression of important news, which, he says, "are hardly a third of the material that has come to the writer's attention." Among them are the following:

A prominent Philadelphia clothier visiting New York was caught perverting boys, and cut his throat. His firm being a heavy advertiser, not a single paper in his home city mentioned the tragedy. . . . During a strike of the elevator men in the large stores, the business agent of the elevator-starters' union was beaten to death, in an alley behind a certain emporium, by a "strong-arm" man hired by that firm. The story, supported by affidavits, was given by a responsible lawyer to three newspaper men, each of whom accepted it as true and promised to print it. The account never appeared.

In another city the sales-girls in the big shops had to sign an exceedingly mean and oppressive contract, which, if generally known, would have made the firms odious to the public. A prominent social worker brought these contracts, and evidence as to the bad conditions that had become established under them, to every newspaper in the city. Not one would print a line on the subject.

On the outbreak of a justifiable street-car strike the newspapers were disposed to treat it in a sympathetic way. Suddenly they veered, and became unanimously hostile to the strikers. Inquiry showed that the big merchants had threatened to withdraw their advertisements unless the newspapers changed their attitude.

In the summer of 1908 disastrous fires raged in the northern Lake country, and great areas of standing timber were destroyed. A prominent organ of the lumber industry belittled the losses and printed reassuring statements from lumbermen who were at the very moment calling upon the State for a fire patrol. When taxed with the deceit, the organ pleaded its obligation to support the market for the bonds which the lumber companies of the Lake region had been advertising in its columns.

On account of agitating for teachers' pensions, a teacher was summarily dismissed by a corrupt school-board, in violation of their own published rule regarding tenure. An influential newspaper published the facts of school-board grafting brought out in the teacher's suit for reinstatement until, through his club affiliations, a big merchant was induced to threaten the paper with the withdrawal of his advertising. No further reports of the revelations appeared.

Many of the dailies serve as mouthpieces of the financial powers, as was shown at the outset of the last financial depression, when the owner of a leading newspaper, having called his reporters together, addressed them: "Boys, the first of you who turns in a story of a lay-off or a shut-down gets the sack."

An amusing reference is made by Pro-

fessor Ross to a newspaper run by a capitalist promoter now under prison sentence, in whose editorial rooms it was forbidden to write anything damaging to certain sixteen corporations. These corporations were known as "sacred cows." Nearly every form of privilege is found in the herd of "sacred cows" venerated by the daily press. For example, the railroad company, the public service company, traction, the tax system, the party system, and "the man higher up," are all "sacred cows."

As to the remedy for the existing state of things, as neither the editor nor the capitalist owner can be expected to alter their course to their manifest disadvantage and loss, Professor Ross proposes an endowed newspaper. He thinks that in view of the fact that millions of dollars have been donated for public purposes, funds for a non-commercial newspaper would be forthcoming if its usefulness be demonstrated. The endowed paper would neither dramatize crime nor gossip of private affairs, nor, above all, would it fake, doctor, or sensationalize the news. Moreover, the endowed newspaper would be a corrective paper, for the big dailies would scarcely dare to be caught cooking or suppressing the news if a fearless competitor were in the field.

PROF. EDWARD A. ROSS, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

(Who proposes an endowed newspaper that will print the news)

THE MESSAGE OF WILLIAM O'BRIEN

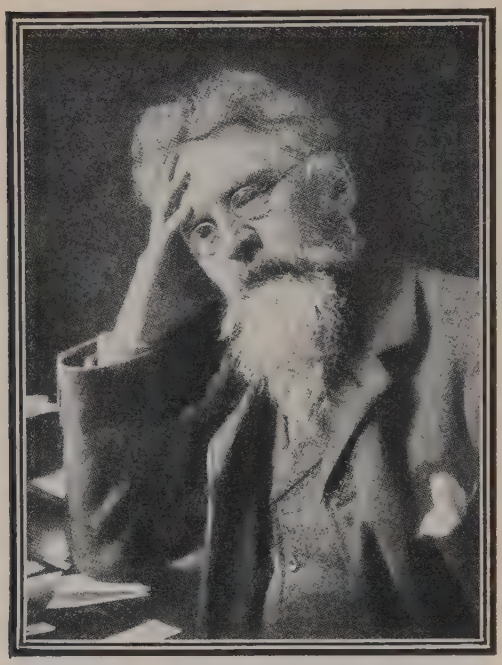
MR. WILLIAM O'BRIEN went to Italy last autumn to enjoy, as he believed, the remaining years of his life in retirement. As a kind of last political will and testament he wrote an article for the *Nineteenth Century* entitled "The New Power in Ireland."

In this state paper Mr. O'Brien describes the new era inaugurated by the Land Purchase Act that sprang from the Shawe Taylor Conference of 1903, and explained why things have not progressed further toward the unification of Ireland than they have at present. The fault, he says, lies at the door of Mr. Redmond, Mr. Dillon, Mr. Devlin, and the directors of the Nationalists, who, after having enjoyed for seven years unparallelel opportunities of power and usefulness, have only devised a policy of boisterous nothingness, the result of which has been failure, unmitigated and conclusive; the shaming of all they phophesied of evil for the policy they assailed, and a record of utter barrenness of achievement on their own part.

Mr. O'Brien concluded his paper by lamenting the lack of the indispensable leader, "the man of experienced good sense and generous imagination, with the necessary formula of conciliation." But he consoles himself by reflecting that "Ireland is a country fertile in surprises and not unfertile in heroic sons." The proofs of the article were not corrected before Mr. O'Brien supplied the greatest surprise to his countrymen by suddenly returning to the political arena. Ireland's heroic son, who had just sung his swan song and proclaimed his final and irrevocable disappearance, suddenly reappeared.

Mr. O'Brien says:

It is one of life's little ironies that the one trophy the statesmanship of the Irish party has brought back from the General Election is my resuscitation. They had only to complete the effect of my retirement by forgetting that a cer-



WILLIAM O'BRIEN, THE IRISH LEADER

tain number of their and my old colleagues had, like myself, stood true to the treaty of 1903, in obedience to a self-denying patriotic duty, and the General Election would have passed over for them almost without a contest and assuredly without a single defeat at the polls. But to the secret cabinet of "the Board of Erin," who are now the admitted masters of the open national organization and of its funds, the opportunity seemed too tempting to wipe out the last vestiges of resistance to their despotism in the councils of the party.

So he came back to political life.

He says that when he left Florence he had no intention of re-entering Parliament.

Having been for nine months entirely cut off from Irish news, and having returned for the sole purpose of aiding in defending the seats of my own half-a-dozen adherents, which, as I supposed, alone were aimed at, I found the country seething with indignation at the plots for decapitating quite one-fourth of the entire Irish party. The plots of "the Board of Erin" were resented all the more fiercely because all the men marked down for destruction had been opposed to Mr. Birrell's Land bill, which has brought land purchase to a dead stop outside the congested districts, and to Mr. Lloyd George's budget, which, whatever its effects in England, spelled ruin for the finances of any future Irish Parliament. The issues thus madly challenged by "the Board of Erin" at the Irish elections were,—1, the budget; 2, the destruction of land purchase; and 3, the usurpation of the rights of the Irish constituencies, and of the control of the national funds by a secret caucus of "the Board of Erin." Upon all these issues the Grand Master and his lieutenants sustained at the polls, wherever the straight issue was faced, a defeat so damaging that nothing except the total absence of concerted action against "the machine" prevented it from approaching to annihilation.

Whatever may be thought of Mr. O'Brien's diagnosis of the situation, no one can read without sympathy his stirring appeal in favor of the all-for-Ireland policy, which has for its "cardinal principle the winning over the British people and the Irish Protestant minority to the cause of self-government by sincere and unmistakable proofs of Irish friendliness, fraternity, and community of interest, without hostility to either of the great British parties, and without subservience to the merely partisan interests of either of them."

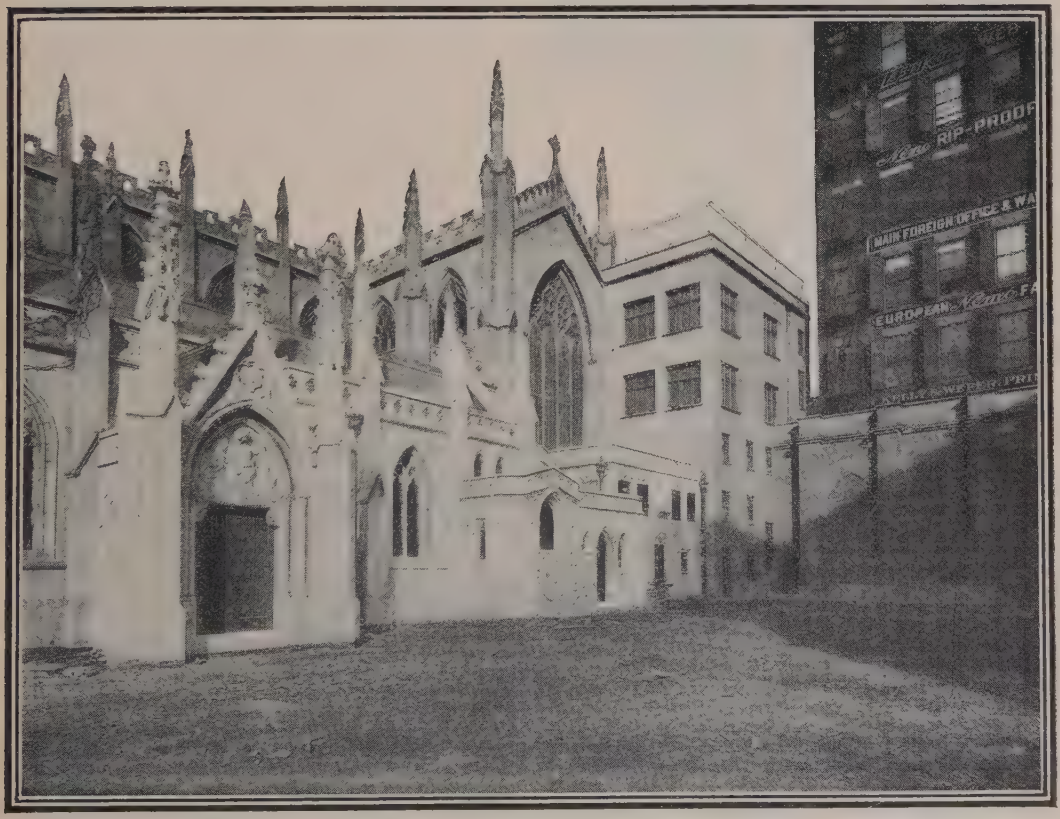
AN OPEN-AIR PULPIT

WHAT is said to be the only open-air pulpit on the North American continent has recently been completed for Grace Church, on Broadway, New York City. Outdoor preaching, to be sure, is by no means unknown in this country, but the architects have not heretofore made provision for it here as they have in France, Italy, and England, where pulpits are built on the outside of churches or near by on crossroads. The Grace Church structure, designed by William W. Renwick, is described in the *International Studio* for March, by Samuel Howe. This pulpit, as Mr. Howe remarks, is well placed.

At Tenth Street, Broadway deflects slightly to the west of the course it holds below, so that the corner here stands at the end of a vista, an effect which in itself is rare in this rectangularly planned city. The spot is known throughout the land and Grace Church is dear to the hearts of many.

The sculptor of the panels for this pulpit is Mr. Jules Edouard Roiné, to whom the French Government gave a special medal for his exquisite rendering of a plaque, "The Dawn of the Twentieth Century." The theme of the panels is the Beatitudes, suggesting the underlying philosophy of Christ's teaching as represented in the Sermon on the Mount, preached in the open.

CENTRAL PANEL OF THE GRACE CHURCH OPEN-AIR PULPIT
(Jules Edouard Roiné, Sculptor)



OPEN-AIR PULPIT—CENTER OF PICTURE—ADJACENT TO GRACE CHURCH, BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY

THE VEXED QUESTION OF THE FRANCHISE IN PRUSSIA

AUGUST BEBEL, LEADER OF THE GERMAN SOCIAL-DEMOCRATIC PARTY

(This statesman, who, on February 22 last, celebrated his seventieth birthday, has been referred to as the father of Prussian franchise reform)

THE Prussian election laws, which have so long and so justly created intense dissatisfaction among large masses of the people, have aroused special interest and agitation through the recent introduction by the government of a new suffrage bill. This measure thoroughly disappoints the expectations of all who were looking for anything like a radical or democratic reform. It retains the three-class system, which entails an enormous under-representation of the working class, and does not even introduce the secret ballot, devised for the protection of these workers. Nevertheless the Berlin *Gegenwart,* a moderate and non-partisan weekly, finds not a little to commend in the measure. It says:

That which the bill offers represents an enormous stride in advance of existing provisions. It was conceived in a spirit of friendliness to the middle class. The plutocratic ascendency of the first class is quite considerably reduced, and its provisions guarantee the less well-to-do, also, an advance into that division. People belonging to the educated classes, the numerous small officials, must recognize that their voting power is materially increased; and just here it will be possible to make still further advances. When the waves of excitement shall have subsided; when the advantages of the reform shall, by skillful retouching, be brought into relief, it may dawn upon the adverse elements, too, that it is better to make a trial of steering with the new election law than to wait for another one to be launched. Should the measure fail to pass, the Center can say to its constituents that it contended for the secret ballot,—it is always ready to play the rôle of the *Tertius gaudens.* All will then remain as it was, and the bond with the conservatives of Prussia be cemented anew. What that signifies as regards the inner development of the greatest State of the German Federation should be taken to heart by all those who are at present only searching out the defects of the reform and shutting their eyes to its obvious good points. Its adoption will be followed by a period of experiment, and that is synonymous with a pause in the agitation. The constant disquietude of the electoral body in the largest Federal State is certainly not conducive to the progress of the economic development of the Empire.

The *Neue Zeit,* organ of the Social-Democrats, speaks contemptuously and bitterly of the measure, characterizing it as patchwork, saying that the decisive fact regarding it is that to the masses who are hungering for their rights it offers a stone in place of bread. It would contradict all historical experience, this journal adds, to have expected anything different,—never has a ruling class voluntarily relinquished its privileges, and the Prussian Junkers are the last from whom it might be looked for. In conclusion, it defines the attitude that the working people should take toward the measure, as follows:

The German workmen struggle for the right of suffrage under entirely different historic conditions from those under which the English and French workmen struggled. The English, and, in its way, the French Parliament also, was always a power, while the German Parliaments have always been powerless. There is not even the slightest advance observable; on the contrary, they have steadily grown weaker,—if such a thing is possible. The favorable opportunities offered the Reichstag a year ago, of at last gaining a solid footing, were most shamefully neglected,—the democratic (*bürgerlich*) parliamentary spirit has, in Germany, no blood in its veins, no marrow in its bones. It would, indeed, be miraculous did such bitter experiences, so often repeated, not react upon the working classes. Not in the way of a soporific, but to rouse them to action; and in this respect the Prussian electoral bill will serve a good

purpose. It brings home to the workingman in unmistakable terms the fact that he has nothing to expect from the voluntary judgment of the ruling classes, and this insight is of greater value than any individual concessions on the part of those classes upon points ever so important. If, at the next election for the Reichstag, the German workingmen take full advantage of their right of suffrage, not in order to "positively co-operate," or to help thresh over the old straw of democratic parliamentarism, but to show how high the flood has risen, then they shall have wreaked thorough vengeance upon the Prussian suffrage bill. It still remains true, in spite of the apparently rigid and unchangeable sheath of outward circumstances, that never before in history have more stupendous revolutions in social life taken place; and the narrow stubbornness of the Junker conceals, at bottom, after all, only the anxiety that if the stream does once demolish the dams the conspicuous splendor of upper-class rule will be swept away like so much decayed rubbish.

A writer in the *Zukunft*,—the organ of Maximilian Harden, whose exposure of the immoralities of a court circle near to the Emperor recently created a profound sensation,—discusses the suffrage question in a more fundamental manner. He regards the adequate representation of every class in the community as the essential object of representative government, and considers the attempt to parcel out the degree of voting weight to different elements, according to intelligence, property, or the like, as aside from the mark. In connection with this and the question of the secret ballot the following remarks of his are of special interest:

These and other artifices, with which most States harass themselves, proceed from the false assumption that a person's right to vote must be measured by his worth. Such a measurement is impossible, and it is superfluous; for the point to be considered is not the value of the individuals, but the interests of the different classes whose well-being constitutes the welfare of the State. "The voting power of a Bismarck not be superior to that of a domestic,—what nonsense!" Yes, if Bismarck's voting power were to be gauged by his value to the State it should be a thousand times greater than that of the domestic. But Bismarck's weight is not lost for all that; he makes it tell, not as a voter, but as Imperial Chancellor; and in this position he is, as a rule, more potent that the entire Reichstag. It is no detriment to the clever publicist that he has no greater voting strength than any blockhead, for his cleverness is not lost to the country,—it works through his written word. And the great industrial, the financier, need not go to the polls at all in order to make the State feel his power. . . . Thus the exclusion of the Fourth Estate from the Prussian Chamber is no misfortune, since the Reichstag regulates matters pertaining to their weal and woe, but it is not nice. And that a reform, which should have had this point constantly in view, is promised, and that instead of it the aggrieved masses are offered a few superfluous and insignificant artifices, this, we say again, is still less nice.

THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR AS THE PRUSSIAN SOCIAL-DEMOCRATS SEE HIM

(For his "reactionary attitude that is an insult to the free thought of modern Prussia," Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg is pictured by the artist of the *Floh* [Vienna] as "a man of the Middle Ages come to a semblance of life," and as "the oldest man in Germany, a left-over from the eighteenth century." His so-called franchise-reform bill is characterized by one angry Berlin editor as "an attempt to tie a new ribbon on the cue of an ancient wig")

AMERICA'S LITERARY NEEDS

A SUGGESTIVE discussion on what might be appropriately termed our shortcomings, our hopes, and our duties in regard to our contemporary literature is contained in the address delivered in June last by Mr. George F. Parker before the literary societies of Washington and Lee Univerity, Lexington, Va., and printed in the *Sewanee Review* for January. Mr. Parker sets out by asking whether or not we are maintaining intact our intellectual inheritance "by handing down to our successors the story of new achievement or by making the repairs and additions necessary in every human structure." He traces from the very appearance of the white man on this continent "the longing to contribute something new and distinctive to the literature of the world." From the beginning our people "were consumed by the desire for a literature of their own," and continued for two hundred years to "dream and pine" for it. They made a real start "about 1820, with Washington Irving in sketch and history, James Fenimore Cooper in the novel, and Daniel Webster,—in whom they added a fourth great orator to the world's list." By the time of the Civil War "we had made a slow, painful beginning." That great conflict left us in "the position of a man of fifty, who, after a life of struggle and success, finds that he must begin anew."

The first desire of a people, after it has won political recognition, says Mr. Parker, is to know something of itself. Our people "soon gathered their own legends and traditions and began to cherish them."

> They began by writing of their struggles with savages, which were nothing like so severe or continuous as those with nature. . . . Their theological struggles were to them very real; hence the story of superstition, intolerance, misunderstanding, and downright cruelty is one of the most sordid in human annals.

Tracing step by step our efforts in the historical field, our successes, and failures, Mr. Parker passes on to biography, concerning which he has this to say:

> During the past fifty years current biography has become a lost art. No distinctive autobiography other than that pathetic and partial record written on Mt. McGregor has enriched our literature. The great, strong men of the Civil War still await the writing of their story. We have the sketch, the slight impressionist view,—and little more. Of them all, the true Lincoln lies buried under a ten-volume book,—too long for biography, too near the time, and too tenuous for history. As there are heaped upon it nearly fifty-score other volumes, we have a myth quite worthy of Homeric times,—but still a myth.
>
> Perhaps we shall never know the inner philosophy of any other great actor in the Civil War on the Federal side. Seward, Stanton, Johnson, Stevens, McClellan, and Sumner are rapidly becoming little more than names. The tide of oblivion threatens them.

As regards fiction, Mr. Parker holds that "during the past quarter of a century no form of literature, except the poem, has suffered such degradation as the novel." . . . It is

> worse than a libel upon our character and achievement to assume that the crowd of idlers, swindlers, roués, flirts, incompetents, mediocrities, and slum-dwellers who march endlessly through the pages of the average novel, fairly represent the people, among whom eighty millions of us live and move, day by day.

Of criticism he says: "The great critic who dealt with imaginative literature has apparently disappeared. . . . The majority of readers do not want guides. . . . They can only comprehend the bold advertisement, the brief notice which, ending with an admonition to buy, contains the announcement that a given number of persons, foolish or otherwise, have bought or read. This leaves no scope for the real reviewer."

Literary criticism is needed now as ever, "as is shown by science and theology. . . . In these departments of thought there are still serious readers who recognize the value of time, and welcome the knowledge and help of others. But the popular novel, which does not live six months and has no permanent influence upon life, what need has it for criticism?"

Mr. Parker then proceeds to "consider the obligation of educated men and women to our contemporary literature."

> If this sense of responsibility is not found in our universities and colleges, where may we hope to seek it? To begin with, these now contain nearly as many teachers as there were students half a century ago. So it is pertinent to inquire what standard they have fixed. Where does their example lead?
>
> It is not that they should all write books. God forbid. But do they see or realize the defects of their time? . . . Where are we to look for intelligent and efficient work in promoting a creditable literature and extending the zone of what we now have, if not to the great body of our men educated and trained in college? We are turning out nearly forty thousand of them every year. . . . It would be inter-

esting if we could but learn what proportion of them comes to know in a large way even the really strong men who made our early history and wrote its records. How many are familiar with Franklin's *Autobiography*,—perhaps the greatest ever written,—or with that quaint body of writing which makes up his works?

How much do we read of Washington, of John Adams, of Madison, of Hamilton, or of John Marshall? "These men are among the real, the distinctive authors we have thus far produced." Further on in his address Mr. Parker asks:

Do our men and women of education study and know as they deserve the works and philosophy of Cooper, Channing, Emerson, Longfellow, Prescott, Parkman, Motley, Hawthorne, Whittier, Lowell, Holmes, Stedman, and Aldrich? Or are they rather not drawn, many times, to the pathetic madness of Poe, the coarseness of Whitman, or the foolishness of the modern horse-play school of humor?

We have a need for creative work. We must recognize our shortcomings and "realize that if we are to supply the one or overcome the other systematic effort will be necessary." And thinking men and women must "realize that a never-ending struggle is necessary to preserve the love of the beautiful and to extend the domain of taste so that intellect can register its triumphs."

THE NEW PROFESSION OF PHILANTHROPY

IF one were asked to designate by a single word the special characteristic of the times in which we live, it would be safe to reply: "Organization." In the varied fields of business, science, and religion organized effort is becoming the recognized means of accomplishing the fullest results. And in the field of philanthropy perhaps the most striking thing is that it is so rapidly falling into line. Mr. O. F. Lewis, writing in the March *Forum* on "Philanthropy: A Trained Profession," says both "organization" and "philanthropy" have to-day a twofold connotation. "Organized" charity in the individual means "the correlation of the individual's knowledge and opinions into a conclusion which leads him to act wisely and efficiently." He cites the following examples:

In April, 1906, the San Francisco earthquake brought to the United States its greatest emergency relief problem. Three hundred thousand people were rendered homeless. Two days after the earthquake, Edward T. Devine, General Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York City, was already en route from New York to San Francisco, the special representative of the American Red Cross, to take charge of the relief work in the stricken city.

On December 27, 1908, Messina and Reggio were overthrown by the greatest earthquake of modern times. Two hundred thousand people were killed. The relief problem, within a few seconds from the time of the first shock, had already become one to stagger the world. Ernest T. Bicknell, formerly head of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, was executive head of the reorganized American Red Cross. He went to Italy as our leader in the Italian relief work.

When that earthquake came to Italy, a little woman, Miss Katharine B. Davis, of Bedford, N. Y., whose work it is to reform female criminals in the Bedford Reformatory, was at Syracuse. The stampeding effects of the earthquake were overwhelming. But within a few hours Miss Davis had cabled to America for money for the sufferers; within a few days she had a rough-and-ready organization of relief going in eastern Italy. Before the earthquake she had been unknown. Within a week or two she had rounded up a section of that chaos in eastern Sicily so effectually as to be generally known, and, to make a long story short, to-day all those who worked on the earthquake relief know about the wonderful little American woman who "got things done," who provided work for the workless, who developed a registration system, even if she didn't know Italian, and who founded and set going an orphan asylum, and so forth, and so forth.

The foregoing are conspicuous events of recent years that have sent important emergency calls to "social workers" to make good. The three persons who responded are exceptionally well-trained workers, but back of them, and shoulder to shoulder with them, has grown up during the last decade a small army of specialists in charitable and civic work, "the militia of organized philanthropy," as Governor Hughes has called them.

"Organized" charity in the community is "that form of aid to the destitute which similarly takes cognizance of all causes and resources, and acts, so far as possible, for the permanent betterment of the community."

So also has the term "philanthropy" a double meaning: (1) the act of *giving*, and (2) the act of *doing* to those in need. Nowadays philanthropists are becoming specialists. "The hit-or-miss age is passing away." Mr. Rockefeller gives to the General Fund and to Chicago University. Mr. Carnegie gives his libraries, and Mrs. Russell Sage establishes the Russell Sage Foundation for the betterment of humanity, and because the investments "will pay in the leveling up of

hundreds of thousands of human lives." To quote the *Forum* writer:

The leading givers of huge sums to-day say to the man-with-a-scheme, "Write me in detail just what your plan is. What will your plan do? When can it be done? How much will it cost? Is somebody else going to do it if I don't? Has it ever been done? *Will it have the same value ten or twenty years from now?* Who will manage the enterprise if I give the money?" In short, the philanthropist of to-day tends, not to ask, "Will this raise a lasting monument to my goodness, and to my love of my fellowman?" but, "Will this pay as an investment in human lives, raising the efficiency and the joy of life of the community or of society in general?"

Just as the old-time charity plunger is being replaced by the modern philanthropist, so the old-time charity worker has given way to the "social worker." There are still applicants for charity, and the causes are the same; but "the viewpoint of the one who brings help has changed." In modern philanthropy "the social viewpoint is the motive, efficiency the instrument."

As efficiency is based on training, this training must be supplied. In many cases it is learned in harness, but in many other instances it is learned in the "school of philanthropy" in New York, Boston, Chicago, or St. Louis.

The "school of philanthropy," which eleven years ago sounded much like a paradox, has amply justified itself in New York. It was established in 1898 by the Charity Organization Society, with an attendance of twenty-seven persons, representing eleven States. The program of the first year was a forecast of many following years. Private charities; the care of families in their homes; care of dependent and delinquent children; public charities; care of the dependent sick; public departments; the delinquent: such were some of the subjects. The experiment of the first year was made permanent. Succeeding years added topics, such as the juvenile court; backward and defective children; tenement house reform; the prevention of tuberculosis; charitable finance; child labor; parks and playgrounds; standards of living.

According to Mr. Lewis, the call for the trained worker is greater than can be met. The twentieth century is to be the century of social brotherhood. Not individual wealth, but community wealth, will become the measure of the community's prosperity. And this wealth will mean, besides mere economic wealth, wealth of leisure and pleasant work, and recreation, and sustenance and shelter for the bread-winner. While economic questions will not lose their importance, social problems will come to the front. So the social worker will be needed; and the social worker *par excellence* must be the "business man" or "business woman" in that particular calling. In other words, they must be professionally trained for the work.

THE HONEY YIELD OF LATIN AMERICA

TWO hundred thousand tons of honey,—or a quantity which, if put up in standard combs, and these placed side by side endwise, would reach twice around the earth,—are produced annually in the countries to the south of the United States. According to Mr. Russell Hastings Millward, who is responsible for this statement in the February *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics, the demand for honey has become so great that bee-keeping is receiving considerable attention in Latin America. In Mexico bees were known long before the days of Cortez, as is attested by the discovery among prehistoric Aztec ruins of honey in an excellent state of preservation in hermetically sealed vessels; and Mr. Millward mentions a fact,—that the stingless variety of bee is a native of South and Central America, as well as of Mexico, many of the other kinds having been introduced from Europe, China, Japan, and Palestine.

There was no honey in the country round Plymouth when the Pilgrims landed there in 1620; and bees were subsequently imported from England for their requirements. At Newbury, Mass., where apiculture seems to have been first systematically practiced, one John Eales was employed to teach the settlers how to make hives and to care for bees. This was in 1644, since which time bee-culture has spread so continuously and widely that to-day there are in the United States about 700,000 bee-keepers, or 1 in every 120 of the population, and the annual yield is of the value of $20,000,000 in honey and of $2,000,000 in beeswax. But beyond this the United States imports every year about 2,500,000 pounds of honey and 750,000 pounds of beeswax, and all but 5 per cent. of this comes from Cuba, Mexico, Haiti, Salvador, the Dominican Republic, and Venezuela. Mr. Millward gives the following interesting data concerning bee-culture in the

various countries of Central and South America:

In the Argentine Republic 100,000 pounds of honey are imported annually, mainly from Chile, but 10,000 pounds are exported to France and Germany, where it is used in the manufacture of fancy crackers.

Brazil has a variety of bees, and the honey is of such good quality that it has been used mainly for medicinal purposes. In some districts the planters of vanilla are encouraged to keep bees in order that the female flowers may be artificially fertilized. The production of honey is enormous, and the Brazilian Government is making a special effort to increase the output. The home demand is so great that only 60,000 pounds are exported annually, mostly to Germany.

Bees were first introduced into Chile from Italy about forty-five years ago. To-day there are nearly 100,000 apiaries in actual operation there; and over 1,000,000 pounds of purified wax and 5,000,000 pounds of honey are exported, and bring top prices in the markets.

Italian bees have also been introduced into Cuba, where they thrive in the cane-fields. About 350,000 gallons of honey and 2,000,000 pounds of wax are produced annually.

In Mexico also wild honey is found in abundance, especially in the forests of the Algerroba tree, whose flowers last for a long time, and are a fertile source of nectar. Mexico exports annually about $90,000 in strained honey and imports about $50,000 in comb honey, some of which comes from China. Of wild honey about 25,000 pounds are exported from the port of Tampico each year.

In Nicaragua the demand for honey is so great that considerable quantities have to be imported. Wild honey is found in great quantities, and is readily purchased by the native population throughout the inland towns and villages.

In Paraguay honey is gathered by the natives for the wax which is used in the manufacture of candles.

The Indians of Peru gather wild honey, which finds a ready sale in the local markets. About 10,000 pounds of honey are imported annually from Great Britain, the United States, and Hong-Kong, on which a duty of 40 per cent. is charged in order to encourage home production. The stingless bee is highly domesticated and thrives on the alfalfa.

Trade in beeswax has been followed extensively by natives of Latin America for many years. Comparatively few persons are aware of the extent to which this commodity is employed in the arts and trades. Mr. Millward enumerates some of its uses:

It is extensively employed in the manufacture of wax candles and tapers, varnishes, paints, polish for pianos, furniture, carriages, floorings; various kinds of glazed and ornamental wall papers, and artificial flowers. Electrotypers adapt it to the forming of molds, and in the machinery trade it is used as a preventive against rust. Laundries are great consumers of wax, which is used as a polish in the finishing of starched articles. Combined with tallow it is used as a coating for canvas awnings, tents, sails, and cordage to prevent cracking or splitting and mildew. Electrical supply houses use it in winding the wire, and it serves the druggists as a basis for salves, as well as for use in making plasters, certain kinds of ointments, and in some medicines. The Hepburn Pure Food Law will cause it to supersede paraffin or ceresin in this respect, as also in the manufacture of candy. Beeswax is used by dentists in taking impressions, and also by patternmakers. As candles made from beeswax emit a permeating perfume and the deposit left after burning does not injure fabrics or pictures, their use in churches is much favored.

In many parts of Mexico, Mr. Millward tells us, the bees, which are of the stingless variety, are regarded by the natives as household pets, and are known by the endearing term of "angelitos," or "little angels."

Children are found in the patios and gardens with candy in their hands, which they playfully share with the bees; and it has often been remarked by tourists how fearlessly and gently the apparently ferocious little insects are brushed aside if they become too greedy or annoying.

Nearly all American bees have a deadly enemy: this is the black ant. So persistent are the attacks of this ferocious little warrior that the bees have the greatest difficulty in defending their colonies and honey. In many districts, in order to prevent the depredations of the ants, the hives are raised from the ground and set in inclosures of water. An ant of a totally different character is found in Mexico. It gathers honey from wild flowers and plants and lives in underground chambers, and contributes to the sustenance of the colony in a most remarkable manner.

A certain number of these ants remain at home and are used as living storehouses. They are fed honey by the workers until they swell to about the size of a pea; and during the seasons, when honey is not obtainable, they regurgitate their supplies, drop by drop, as food for the colony.

In the south of Brazil as well as in certain districts of Paraguay and Uruguay, where it is indigenous, there is a wasp which gathers honey. It is said to produce honey of an excellent quality, differing only slightly from that of the bee. This wasp produces no wax, the cells in which the honey is inclosed being of clay or mud.

The pure-food laws having rendered almost impossible the marketing of adulterated honey, certain bee-keepers feed their bees with saccharine substances in order to increase the production of honey. It is considered by the trade generally that this should be regarded as palpable adulteration.

DIVORCE IN EUROPE

THE *Riforma Sociale,* printed at Turin, publishes an article based on a statistical compilation dealing with the subject of legal divorce and separation. Both these expressions of conjugal dissidence have been on the increase all over Europe for some time; in the countries where divorce cannot be obtained a rising number of separations must be noted. Thus, in the case of Italy, where divorce does not exist, a period covering thirty years shows that the separations have virtually doubled. Austrian records reveal about that same rate of growth for divorce, although the separations do not reach quite so high a rate. In Belgium and Norway divorce has more than quintupled, while in Holland it has multiplied three and a half fold. As to separations, these three countries exhibit respective increases in the ratios of eight to five, two to one, and three to one. But no complete table of comparisons is possible, because the governments have no uniform system of registry, and in some lands the official information dispensed is not scientifically obtained.

Among the nations of Europe Switzerland leads off with the highest average of divorces, the record of the Helvetian republic being about four to every hundred marriages. France, too, has a high percentage, and so has Greece, and in both countries the figures exhibit a strong upward tendency. Other percentages given in the *Riforma Sociale* are: Rumania, two and a half; Prussia, one; Denmark, two; Sweden, one; England, one-half. In Ireland and Russia divorce is rare. In Sweden there prevails a sort of divorce for couples who are merely betrothed. The large numbers peculiar to Switzerland and France are partly due to the inferior legal status of women there, who have much cause to chafe at the restrictions to which they are subject, and are frequently irritated thereby. In the Russian Empire, on the other hand, there is an enormous rural population, clinging hard to tradition, little affected by foreign example, so scattered as to have small opportunity for the exchange of ideas and advice, and often remote from courts with the necessary jurisdiction; besides, an ecclesiastical tribunal must confirm the civil verdict. Women are almost everywhere in the majority as applicants for the dissolution of the marriage tie, Paris and Berlin offering fair medium instances, with 56 and 60 per cent. of female applicants respectively. Rather universal, too, is the system of legally essayed conciliation; in England one finds provisional decisions, according to which the divorce is not definitely pronounced until after a lapse of at least six months.

As far as the granting of petitions for divorce is concerned, the proportions run from ninety-four and ninety-one out of a hundred in Scotland and England, to fifty-eight and fifty-seven per hundred in Rumania and Hungary. In Italy it is apparently less easy to secure even a separation than elsewhere a divorce, for in the Apennine kingdom half the petitions for the minor kind of sunderance are rejected. The presence of offspring militates, in general, against either form of rupture, although in a lesser degree with separation than with divorce. Paris and Berlin are again cited here, but with the object of showing the great divergencies existing: in the French capital childless couples who divorce are four times as numerous as those having offspring, whereas in Germany's metropolis the pendulum swings the other way, for there the ratio of divorces between parents and childless couples is five to three.

Some exceptional cases apart, it is observed that the connubial knot is most often severed between the fifth and tenth year after marriage; by the fifteenth year financial difficulties are likely to have been overcome, or moderate differences of temperament compounded. People of similar ages are the least prone to disagree, but when the husband is the youngest the chances of rupture increase, and although women, as a whole, ask for divorce oftener than men, the reservation must be made that it is the women who in later life are best able to adjust themselves to the daily round with uncongenial partners. Want of stability, experience, and cash seem to be the principal causes rendering youthful unions precarious as to duration, whereas drunkenness is found to be one of the worst enemies to domestic solidarity. And there are special features of our own time which promote the rise of separation and divorce, namely, physical mobility through increased facilities and opportunities of travel, concentration of population in large cities, intensity and nervousness of industrial life, waning of religious influence, and growth of the concept of individuality,—especially regarding the female sex.

FINANCE AND BUSINESS

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH

TO ABOLISH THE TAX ON HONESTY

A CRIPPLE in New York City, with a wife and child dependent upon him, has for sole support a trust fund of $25,000. The income from this would not furnish riotous living for the family at the best. Yet he must pay a "personal tax," amounting to no less than 40 per cent. of his income.

"This is not taxation; it is confiscation," as Assistant Corporation Counsel McGoldrick remarked last month in behalf of the New York City authorities. Mayor Gaynor himself and President Purdy, of the Tax Department, are in favor of the bill introduced at Albany on the 10th to abolish, for New York City, what is known as the "general personal property tax."

The result of this tax is simply tragic in cases like the above. Another owner of a small estate has bonds worth $19,500, which are taxed this year at $330,—which is just one-third his entire income.

Just how much dishonesty is fostered by this provision may be guessed from the fact that only one-half the assessment of this tax is found to be actually collectible.

Many men of wealth have been swearing their taxes off quite openly. One of them wrote the Tax Reform Association in New York last month, "I used to pay on $250 personal assessment, and when it was raised to $1250 I went forthwith and swore it all off."

Other typical taxpayers who received a circular letter from the association reported that they evaded the tax through purchasing securities that were "exempt." Some merchants would shuffle their stock in hand and their bank balances to the same effect. All felt degraded by the situation,—even those who paid only the real estate tax, which, of course, would have to be raised if the personal tax were abolished.

It sounded strange to hear warm advocacy from one real estate dealer and taxpayer after another for a measure that would increase the tax on real estate. Most of them, however, seem to feel that the abolition of the general personal tax would lead more people to make New York City their residence and to invest their money in New York City real estate.

Even if the whole four and one-half million dollars of the New York City personal tax collected had to be made up through real estate it would involve only six or seven cents increase on a hundred dollars. But we must deduct a quarter of a million or so which the receiver of taxes and others now spend in their attempts, only one-half successful, to collect the taxes in question,—not to mention another quarter of a million which is annually expended in litigation arising from tax disputes.

In the State, outside of New York City, the condition is even worse. In one city, where the real estate was assessed at $29,000,000, the entire holdings of personal property got off with an assessment of $175,000.

By no means does the bill in question exempt all personal property from taxation,—simply that remnant which is not already taxed under some special designation. And it is this remnant which includes the kinds of property which are most easily concealed and which the less scrupulous can therefore be relied upon to swear off consistently.

INTERESTING TO TAXPAYERS EVERYWHERE

LAST month one of the most distinguished citizens of the State of Missouri submitted to formal arrest in St. Louis, charged with failing to state the amount of his taxable personal property. This happened to be only a day after the introduction of the bill to abolish said tax in New York City.

And in the fate of this bill great interest will be shown from many other States, especially a dozen in the West, where one Tax Commission after another has been wrestling with the problem.

In fact, many States other than New York find the tax even more of a nuisance. First, an unusual number of *classes* of personal property in New York are exempt. Such are any stocks at all that are owned

by a resident of New York. Elsewhere the only stocks exempted are those of corporations organized within the State in question.

Then, not all States exempt, as New York does, their own bonds and the bonds of their municipalities.

Above all, the general practice is to allow the individual taxed to offset his debts against his credits only, whereas in New York he may subtract the amount of his debts from the entire amount of his personal property.

In one State after another there is crying necessity to amend the "personal property clause" of the State constitution, inserted by pioneer legislators half a century ago, before corporation bonds and stocks had become familiar objects of purchase and sale, and before any one could have foreseen that that constitutional provision would become "a tax on honesty."

THE SONS OF POOR MEN

SOCIALISTS point with gloom to the increase of stock companies. What chance, they ask, has the poor man for independence, now that every activity is becoming incorporated and controlled by some bigger corporation, which in turn is controlled by some holding company in the grasp of abnormally wealthy malefactors?

Recent news of corporate combination is not lacking. The small tobacconist long ago vanished from certain sections, unable to meet the competition of the centralized cigar companies' branch stores. A couple of big drug-store holding companies operating in New York City have recently been capturing the trade of a good many old-established corner drug-stores, which, in turn, have been combining for self-protection.

Those who believe that concentration is inevitable, that one might as well try to sweep the sea back as to check the spread of holding companies, will be interested to hear from the chairman of the Maypole Dairy Company, Limited. His remarks, reported by the London *Statist,* were made at the twelfth annual meeting of the company's stockholders in London.

First, this company is one of the many in England that shares its profits with its employees in the form of commissions or bonuses.

Secondly, the company provides that its staff shall invest a part of said bonuses in the company's common shares. These shares are then held in trust for the benefit of the employees.

"We hope," the chairman announced, "thus gradually to create a body of shareholders who will work in the business and carry it on successfully when the founders and original owners have retired.

"The present seems to be the age of big businesses. The severe competition makes it more and more difficult for the small manufacturer or small shopkeeper to compete with the large one.

"We believe Maypole employees are doing better under our profit-sharing and shareholding schemes than they would be doing under the old conditions."

The highest and best paid positions of the Maypole Dairy, the chairman further explained, were open to any employee who could show results. "We endeavor to give equal opportunities to all. Generally speaking, it is *the sons of poor men* who have organized and built up the big businesses of to-day; the sons of rich men often fail to acquire the necessary knowledge and experience because they are not compelled to start at the bottom or to work so hard as the sons of poor men."

Philanthropy? Not at all! The net profit of the Maypole Dairy exceeded $1,500,000 for the year,—an increase of more than a quarter of a million upon the previous year.

PROFIT-SHARING IN AMERICA

NATURALLY there is more profit-sharing between the corporation and employee in England than in other countries. The labor unions are stronger, and so is the principle of corporate combination. You can count on your fingers the different banking institutions, for instance, which control most of the banking deposits in England.

The degree of partnership granted his employees by Sir Christopher Furness, one of the leading English shipbuilders, has not been paralleled, we believe, elsewhere.

In America the United States Steel Corporation leads with employees' stockholdings, as in other respects. Every year since 1903 the directors have allowed employees to subscribe to a certain amount of stock at a certain price. Up to 1910 about 200,000 shares of preferred had been allotted at prices that showed the holders a profit of some $8,000,000.

Common stock was also allotted last year to the amount of 15,318 shares. The price was $50, which has been nearly doubled since in the open market.

No less than 21,458 steel workers,—more than 10 per cent. of the whole force,—were owners of the stock last year. Since then 25,000 new shares have been allotted. Of course all these shares are held in trust for the employees.

No less than 2371 shares of the 7 per cent. preferred stock of the big "United Dry Goods" combination have been paid for in cash by its employees. They have been allowed to subscribe at the special price of par, although the stock sells in the open market around 115.

Interested employers can learn practical details from other large corporations,—for example, the Mackay companies, which similarly share the profits of their telegraph and cable lines with their employees; the Du Pont Powder Company, and the International Harvester Company.

WHY GOVERNMENT BONDS ARE MORE POPULAR ABROAD

NO doubt it would be much better for the Government and the governed in America if the bonds of the former were purchasable by the latter in amounts of less than $1000.

But the above proposition has been stated quite frequently in connection with the Postal Savings Bank, the Central Bank, and other financial projects, and reference has been made to popular investment in bonds of foreign governments, with apparent disregard of an additional attraction for the investor abroad.

Imagine a big hollow wheel full of little cartridges or capsules,—thousands of them, each sealing up a slip of paper upon which is a number.

Then imagine that these numbers are duplicates of the regular serial numbers on an issue of United States Government bonds,—say the 4s of 1925, for instance.

Imagine the big round drum vigorously revolved so as to shuffle up all the little cartridges; its side opened, and a small newsboy, imported from the street for that purpose, and highly honored, rolling his sleeves up to the elbow, inserting his arm in the drum and withdrawing a cartridge which, when opened, is found to contain 10,001.

Finally, imagine that the United States Government had, in its financial wisdom, provided a prize of $20,000 for the holder of the bond whose number should thus be drawn first; one of $10,000 for the second, and so on for half a dozen numbers.

Could any one calculate the enthusiasm with which the friends and acquaintances of No. 10,001 would subscribe to the next issue of Government bonds, no matter how high the price?

Your imagination would only be applying to America what is actually the rule for the fifty issues of bonds of all nations that meet with so ready a market abroad, especially in Paris.

Now it is true that the Siamese, the Swiss, the Greek, the Egyptian, and the other government bonds that the French workmen and milliners and clerks put their savings into so readily come in not more than $100 and often in $20 pieces. But do not forget the lottery!

A glance at the newspaper quotations of government bonds actively handled on the French Bourse, the greatest investment market in the world, shows the date of the "drawings" put opposite the name of each bond just as conspicuously as the prevailing quotation or rate of interest.

Thus one finds that the holders of African 3s will have a chance to pick a lucky number next September. For Algerian 3s the date is May. The Austrian bonds of '66 will come to their next "drawing" in June, the Argentine 5s in May, and so down the international alphabet to Sweden, Switzerland, and Uruguay.

Even if the moral convictions of the nation would permit the United States Government to issue bonds carrying a gambling chance, the action would probably be illegal under the act of September 19, 1890, which was aimed at the Louisiana Lottery.

HIGH PRICES AND THE BUSINESS BAROMETER

JUST as the small boy pushes the hands of the clock ahead to hasten the end of his lessons, so high prices tend to whirl the business barometer faster than conditions warrant.

For instance, bank clearings, although they were nearly 9 per cent. more for this January than three years before, did not necessarily imply that 9 per cent. more shoes, bricks, loaves of bread, and so on had been exchanged by business men. Such things cost more this year than they did three years ago.

Most confusing of all is the foreign trade balance, or lack of balance. The rush of imports, which has been producing such an ominous debit against Americans, was at

first ascribed to the desire of foreign merchants to get goods over here before the tariff bill should raise the bars against them.

Yet the August imports show smaller than those of any month since.

The total for February was not only the largest for that month ever recorded, but it marked the first February balance *against* the United States since 1895.

In fact, imports have increased during the fiscal year that began with last July no less than $200,000,000, against an increase of little more than $50,000,000 in exports.

To cast up our accounts with Europe has always been a delicate matter at the best. We lose perhaps five hundred millions a year in dividend and interest payments, in European expenses of American travelers abroad, in earnings sent home by immigrants, and so on. Now we have added the stubborn fact that the American market, to the European manufacturer, is a better market to sell in than to buy in.

'BUILDING AND LOAN" DISCRIMINATION

AS the building season comes around there is an increase in questions concerning building and loan associations.

Few institutions have so deep a hold on sentiment as these; they stand for homes and savings through co-operation.

Yet there is a widespread feeling that somehow practice does not come up to theory. In fact, the Banking Superintendent of New York State, in his report issued the 15th of last month, referred to "the mystery surrounding the operation of such corporations."

Few things are easier to learn, however, than the truth about any given savings or loan association in any State where there are many such. The Superintendent of Banking will be found closely in touch with the conduct of every association and ready with the kind of information that counts. Even in States where the associations are few there is somebody at the capitol who will reply,—perhaps the Secretary of State.

The "mystery" that has worked the most harm of all is well ventilated in the new report for New York. It is the confusion between the true or "local" building and loan associations and the so-called "national" concerns.

The "local" lends money only on property personally known to its officers and inspected by them. These officers usually have a stake in the community and are therefore willing to serve without remuneration, direct or indirect.

The "nationals," however, used to lend money to strangers in remote States, and were frequently managed in the interests of their officers. They and the agents sometimes took out of the association more money than it earned,—which meant impairment of capital.

A great reform, however, has taken place in New York State in the past ten years. Only the "local" kind can be organized now. The others have practically disappeared. Their abuses, the Superintendent writes, "are no longer possible." The same could be said of other States which have enjoyed the same up-to-date devoted banking supervision.

How the well-run associations can pay to savers no less than 6 per cent. and begin compounding interest promptly on the date of every monthly installment becomes plain from the New York report. It shows an average operating expense for "locals" of only 0.008 of their accumulated capital. No wonder that the "locals" of New York State increased their assets last year nearly $3,000,000 and had more than 81,000 more shares outstanding.

This State, however, has less assets ($42,000,000) held by building and loan associations than any of the following: Pennsylvania, Ohio, New Jersey, Illinois, and Massachusetts. Nor is it far ahead of Indiana. California, Michigan, Nebraska, Illinois, and Missouri are the next in line, the latter with about $10,000,000.

The total for the United States is about $800,000,000. These figures, remember, relate entirely to the "locals," and the members who co-operatively own those assets are now more than two million in number.

THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD AND THE COUNTRY

THE railroad firemen's strike, threatened as this issue of the magazine goes to press, is typical of labor disturbances that may be expected from now on. How fitted the country is to stand up under such shocks can be read in and between the lines of the Pennsylvania's report for 1909.

Although railroads cut a popular figure as perhaps the most grasping and monopolizing of all corporations, the fact is, without reference to any opinion whatsoever, that they are also the biggest and most "ultimate" of all consumers.

When their purchases have served their purpose they retire to the scrap heap.

As to the scope of those purchases, it would be hard to improve on the recent words of the *Railway Age Gazette* concerning railroad consumption: "It covers iron, steel, and wood in endless variety and amount; service on a great scale expressed in wages and salaries; the infinity of materials that enter into a great station, bridges, or rolling stock; coal, not in tons but in hills; rivers of lubricating oil; electric consumption on a scale that requires new units of measurement. The 97 mighty pages of the new tariff lie before us. They contain 14 schedules enumerating more than 3000 commodities, counting different grades of the same commodity; and in the 14 schedules *the railways are large consumers of more than half.*"

The Pennsylvania's 1909 report may, therefore, be considered as evidence from a very representative "consumer."

The "railroad" proper is the nucleus of a system whose earnings were last year more than $315,000,000.

At first, the two main income facts do not seem to agree. In 1908 the railroad had lost $28,000,000 in gross, as compared with the two business years of 1907. But last year, although it made up only $17,000,000 of that *gross* loss, the *net* earnings were actually larger. How can this be with higher prices for all services and supplies?

Economy is the word, of course. Yet it is the kind of economy that is possible only to the best managed roads and to those with the greatest accumulation of "fat," as the railroad men say, meaning up-to-dateness of equipment and repairs. The car which has been overhauled in the shops quite thoroughly and quite recently can be run longer on less money in hard times than one whose maintenance has been "skinned."

Then there is the fact, peculiarly forceful to a railroad, that the year after a panic allows greater economy than the year before. There is less crowding, so it costs less to move each train. There are more men who want work, so the foremen find it easier to "hustle" those who already hold jobs.

The Pennsylvania's great trick of economy was the increasing of the train-load. Of course the fewer trains it takes to haul a given number of thousand tons the more money the railroad will make.

The Pennsylvania's train-load was already high. The ten-year average of 485 tons is 40 per cent. above that of the New York Central, for instance. But last year the average for all lines directly operated was brought up to 656 tons, and for the Pennsylvania Division alone to the stupendous figure of 782 tons.

But retrenchment is, after all, a makeshift. When the time comes for business in every direction to go forward again it will transpire that many railroads have been living off "fat," until they show but little more than skin and bones.

The railroad strike is a sign of the damage done by high prices indirectly. The splendid science and immense organization through which the railroad company is able to economize does not exist in the case of the fireman, whose $20 a week may not bring his family two-thirds of what it did a dozen years ago.

WIPING OFF THE "UNLISTED"

THIS issue of the REVIEW will appear on an epoch-marking day of the fight for publicity in the affairs of corporations offering their stock to the public. Hereafter, the New York Stock Exchange is to permit no dealings in "unlisted" securities.

For this decision many of the broader-minded financial influences, notably the *Wall Street Journal,* have been calling during years past.

The story resembles that of the famous Tweedledum and Tweedledee. In the first place, the New York Stock Exchange has an excellent "Committee on Stock List." It exacts from every company wishing to have its stock *regularly* listed a long statement of the assets and earnings behind said stock, and the liabilities and expenditures.

All this is admirable. But the trouble is that most investors in the United States were unaware that some of the most widely known and dealt-in stocks, such as Amalgamated Copper, Anaconda, "Smelters," American Woolen, Distillers' Securities, and others, made no such reports. They were "listed in the unlisted department."

Yet their quotations have been printed, day by day, in most newspapers, in such manner as to distinguish them not at all from stocks "regularly listed."

When Amalgamated Copper dropped from 130 to 53 eight years ago, and in 1907 from 121 to 42, many holders began to ask what it was they had bought stock in. They could not learn, then. They can now.

THE NEW BOOKS

DR. VAN DYKE ON THE AMERICAN SPIRIT

BECAUSE of the "ancient amity between France and America which is recorded in golden letters in the chronicles of human liberty," it is particularly appropriate that Dr. Henry van Dyke's analysis of American character, which is entitled "The Spirit of America,"[1] should be addressed to the French people. In this volume, which contains the larger portion of the material contained in the course of lectures delivered during the winter of 1908-09 on the Hyde Foundation at the University of Paris and repeated in part at other universities throughout France, Dr. van Dyke considers the things that to him seem "vital, significant, and creative in the life and character of the American people." Americans, says Dr. van Dyke in his introduction,—in a sentence which gives, he tells us, the keynote to his thesis,—are "a people of idealists engaged in a great practical task." The chapter headings will give a very clear and consecutive idea of Dr. van Dyke's reasoning: "The Soul of a People," "Self-Reliance and the Republic," "Fair Play and Democracy," "Will Power, Work, and Health," "Common Order and Social Co-operation," "Personal Development and Education," "Self-Expression and Literature." The ruling passion of America, says Dr. van Dyke, is not equality, but "personal freedom for every man to exercise his will power under a system of self-reliance and fair play."

A NEW BOOK IN THE TUBERCULOSIS CAMPAIGN

One of the campaigners against tuberculosis to whom Mr. Kingsbury alludes in his article in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, entitled "No Tuberculosis in New York State in 1920!" is Dr. Woods Hutchinson, the brilliant writer and speaker upon medical topics, whose book on "The Conquest of Consumption"[2] has been published within the past month. Dr. Hutchinson, like Mr. Kingsbury, is an optimist in this campaign. He begins his book with the words, "This is a winning fight." Among the significant chapter titles are these: "Fresh Air and How to Get It"; "Food, The Greatest Foe of Consumption"; "The Camp and the Country." His concluding chapter gives specifications for the open-air treatment at home, with five full-page plates showing various styles of sleeping porches for home use and a diagram of a tent. Not only should every tubercular patient have a copy of Dr. Hutchinson's little book, but all who are interested in the fight against the great white plague,—and they are now numbered by thousands,—should be familiar with its contents.

Many of Dr. Hutchinson's admirable magazine articles on practical hygiene and medicine have been brought together in a convenient volume entitled "Preventable Diseases,"[3] "Colds and How to Catch Them," "Adenoids, Their Cause and Their Consequence," and "Nerves and Nervousness" are among the topics treated.

AMERICAN SHIPS AND SAILORS

Mr. Frederic Stanhope Hill, in "The Romance of the American Navy,"[4] does not confine himself to the adventures of those American seamen whose vessels were included in the roster of the navy in its strictly technical meaning, but records as well the exploits of those privateers from whose officers were recruited so many of our most distinguished naval commanders in the Revolution and in the War of 1812. In both of these wars Mr. Hill declares that the heroic deeds of our privateersmen were unparalleled in the history of naval warfare.

The deeds of the American navy have been far more celebrated in song and story than those of the American merchant marine, which form the subject of a new book by John R. Spears.[5] This book, like Mr. Hill's, has something to say about American privateers, but deals in the main with strictly commercial ventures. The story of the American merchant marine really ended half a century ago, and Mr. Spears finds little in the present situation to justify the hope that any system of subsidies will regain for us our lost supremacy on the high seas.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE

In the simple, direct, and vigorous style that characterized his book, "A Sailor's Log," and has always been equally characteristic of his general attitude toward life, Admiral Robley D. Evans has given us another book, entitled "An Admiral's Log."[6] This tells the entire story of his career from where the former book left it off, in the year 1899, and carries the narrative down to "Fighting Bob's" retirement from active service at the age of sixty-two. The volume is crowded with incident, all told in the picturesque manner of this seaman's other contributions to print. "An Admiral's Log" includes an account of the stay in the Philippines, the visit to China at the time of the Boxer siege of Peking, the tour of Prince Henry of Prussia in the United States, and ends up with a detailed story of the famous cruise of the Atlantic fleet around the world. The volume is copiously illustrated.

We have had a number of volumes, and a greater number of magazine articles, on President Diaz of Mexico, written by American and British journalists. The recently issued biography of the Mexican president, however, by José F. Gódoy, is the first serious study, we be-

[1] The Spirit of America. By Henry van Dyke. Macmillan. 276 pp. $1.50.

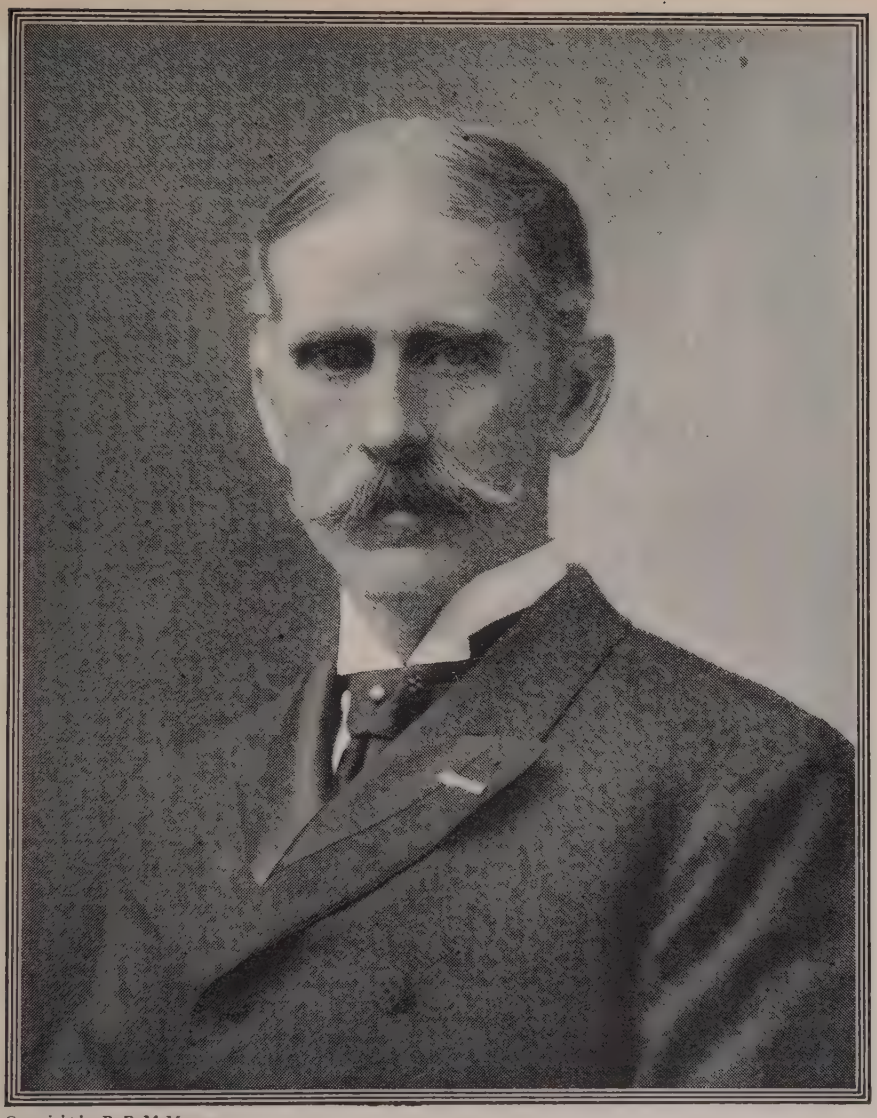
[2] The Conquest of Consumption. By Dr. Woods Hutchinson. Houghton Mifflin. 138 pp., ill. $1.

[3] Preventable Diseases. By Dr. Woods Hutchinson. Houghton Mifflin. 442 pp. $1.50.

[4] The Romance of the American Navy. By Frederic Stanhope Hill. Putnams. 395 pp., ill. $2.50.

[5] The Story of the American Merchant Marine. By John R. Spears. Macmillan. 340 pp., ill. $1.50.

[6] An Admiral's Log. By Robley D. Evans. Appletons. 467 pp., ill. $2.



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DR. HENRY VAN DYKE, INTERPRETER OF "THE SPIRIT OF AMERICA"

lieve, written by a Mexican.[1] The volume is frankly a panegyric of the great Mexican statesman. It contains a good deal of new and interesting biographical matter and is well illustrated.

The life of Garret A. Hobart,[2] of New Jersey, who was the twenty-fourth Vice-President of the United States, has been written by the Rev. Dr. David Magie. Mr. Hobart had a popular and successful public career, was highly honored by his fellow-citizens, and died just at the time when he had reached the apex of his power and influence. Before his entrance into national politics Mr. Hobart had been at the head of large business enterprises and was an influential factor in the formation and consolidation of various public-service corporations in and about the city of Paterson.

Horace Mann, the apostle of public schools, is the subject of a new biography by George Allen Hubbell.[3] Numerous short biographies of Mann have been published from time to time since his death at Antioch College, Ohio, more than fifty years ago. There have also appeared the "Life and Works" in five large volumes. The present work is more elaborate than any of the brief sketches, and far more convenient for reference or reading than the "Life and Works." It has been carefully prepared and

[1] Porfirio Diaz. By José F. Gódoy. Putnams. 253 pp., ill. $2.

[2] The Life of Garret Augustus Hobart. By David Magie. Putnams. 300 pp., ill. $2.50.

[3] Life of Horace Mann. By George Allen Hubbell. Philadelphia: W. F. Fell Company. 285 pp., ill. $1.50.

probably fairly summarizes the estimate of Mann now commonly held by educationists, to whom much of his work was an inspiration.

"From the Bottom Up"[1] is the graphic title of the life story of Alexander Irvine, whose successive experiences as a boy in Ireland, a seaman on a British man-of-war, a Bowery waif, a labor leader, and a Socialist propagandist, make up an unusual biography even for this land of kaleidoscopic changes.

Washington as an historic character has of late been undergoing a humanizing process as radical as it was necessary. Historical scholars have been sifting the myths and fables from the facts until it may be said that the figure of Washington has been wholly reconstructed. It remained to popularize this new conception of the father of his country, and to do this successfully an entirely new order of ability was required. Happily the work of the scholarly historians has been admirably supplemented by such writers as Frederick Trevor Hill, who has taken authentic documents and other authoritative information bearing on Washington's life and thereon based a narrative history of Washington as boy and man which is quite unlike the popular biographies of a generation ago. It can no longer be said that Washington is "only a steel-engraving." Mr. Hill deserves credit for making known to his readers the fact that Washington was not always as old as the Gilbert Stuart portraits indicate, nor did he fight his battles in a powdered wig. The illustrator of Mr. Hill's book, "On the Trail of Washington,"[2] is Mr. Arthur Becher, who has absolutely disregarded all tradition that could not be traced to well-authenticated facts.

The Hon. Gustave Koerner, of Illinois, was for many years a member of that small but influential group of German-American leaders to which belonged Carl Schurz, Franz Sigel, and a number of others whose names were more familiar in the Middle West than in any other part of the country. Judge Koerner was a member of the Illinois Supreme Court, a contemporary of Lincoln and Douglas, and one of the founders of the Republican party. His "Memoirs"[3] have just been published in two volumes. They are in the form of life sketches written at the suggestion of his children and not originally intended for publication. They include many details relating to his domestic and social life and for that reason are the more valuable. Judge Koerner was a political refugee from his native land, coming to this country in the early '30s. He died in 1896.

THE LAW AND THE ADVOCATE

Mr. Francis L. Wellman, of the New York bar, author of "The Art of Cross-Examination," has given us a new volume on legal topics principally devoted to great advocates and their arts. The weighing of testimony is one of the principal subjects in this new book, which is entitled "The Day in Court."[4] It is in no sense, he tells us, a law book. It treats of the intellectual and physical equipment of lawyers, their opportunities and rewards, the arts they practice, and the ethics, perils, and humors of their profession. Mr. Wellman writes in a simple, direct style, and interlards his general observations with many interesting, characteristic incidents and anecdotes connected with the lives or great deeds of famous advocates.

A volume that will be appreciated by all lovers of forensic eloquence is "Classics of the Bar,"[5] compiled by the Hon. Alvin V. Sellers, of Georgia. The masterpieces contained in the book were delivered by some of the most eminent American advocates in trials that during the past two or three decades have aroused national interest. Much of the oratory of the bar is extemporaneous, and the fact that some of the most brilliant efforts of the courtroom have not been stenographically recorded gives added interest to the notable examples which the compiler has been able to find and preserve in book form. A brief introductory note to each address acquaints the reader with the circumstances of the case involved, while the verdict of the jury is also appended.

AFRICA AND ITS BIG GAME

Mr. Roosevelt's articles in *Scribner's* are making Americans acquainted with certain portions of the Dark Continent and the big game that inhabits those wilds. Meanwhile Mr. Edgar Beecher Bronson, the author of "Reminiscences of a Ranchman," has contributed a volume of his own experiences in hunting big game over somewhat the same ground covered by Mr. Roosevelt. He entitles his story "In Closed Territory"[6] (British East Africa). Besides relating many interesting personal adventures, Mr. Bronson gives much information about the country which he traversed and the text of his book is accompanied by nearly one hundred illustrations made from photographs by the author.

Another very interesting, though possibly less exciting, account of African travel is Mr. A. Radclyffe Dugmore's "Camera Adventures in the African Wilds."[7] Mr. Dugmore made a four-months' expedition in British East Africa for the purpose of securing photographs of big game from life. In the present volume 140 such photographs are reproduced. The reader does not need Mr. Dugmore's assurance that there has been no faking in connection with these photographs, for they bear the marks of genuineness and almost without exception are excellent pieces of work. The animals were photographed in their natural state, at large, and entirely free from fences and other restrictions. Mr. Dugmore, who was brought up to the use of firearms and in former years indulged in shooting as one of his greatest pleasures, has become converted to the idea that the life of any animal is more interesting and useful than the study of its dead body. He now finds great pleasure and interest in hunting with the

[1] From the Bottom Up. By Alexander Irvine. Doubleday, Page & Co. 304 pp., ill. $1.50.
[2] On the Trail of Washington. By Frederick Trevor Hill. Appletons. 275 pp., ill. $1.50.
[3] Memoirs of Gustave Koerner. Edited by Thomas J. McCormack. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. Two vols., 1400 pp., ill. $10.
[4] The Day in Court. By Francis L. Wellman. Macmillan. 257 pp. $2.
[5] Classics of the Bar. By Alvin V. Sellers. Baxley, Ga.: Classic Publishing Company. 314 pp., ill. $2.
[6] In Closed Territory. By Edgar Beecher Bronson. McClurg & Co. 299 pp., ill. $1.75.
[7] Camera Adventures in the African Wilds. By A. Radclyffe Dugmore. Doubleday, Page & Co. 233 pp., ill. $6.

camera. The notion that this form of sport is dull and lifeless by comparison with shooting would soon be dispelled by a reading of Mr. Dugmore's experiences, which were fairly entitled to be styled "adventures."

BRITAIN AND HER PROBLEMS

In a series of vigorous chapters, written in a swinging, convincing style, Prof. Spenser Wilkinson (who occupies the chair of military history at Oxford) presents to his own country and the world at large "Britain at Bay."[1] "England," says Mr. Wilkinson, "is beyond a doubt drifting into a quarrel with Germany which if it cannot be settled involves a struggle for the mastery with the strongest nation that the world has yet seen." Britain, moreover, he insists, is not ready. The English "have ceased to be a nation." According to every one of the tests that can be applied, continues this courageous Englishman, "the probability of defeat for Great Britain is exceedingly great." In order to win a national victory, Mr. Wilkinson further contends, a state must have the right in the dispute and the force to make her cause good. He is not sure that England would be in the right in a struggle with Germany, and he appears to be tolerably certain that the force does not exist to make her cause good. What must be done is to "put the idea of a nation and the will to help England into every man's soul." When this idea has supplanted the idea of partisanship England will be on the road to victory. Professor Wilkinson has had a thorough journalistic training and has traveled extensively in Europe and Asia. He was a member of the Royal Commission on Militia and Volunteers in 1903-04.

Mr. J. Ellis Barker is coming to be known as an authority upon the history of Germanic peoples. His books,—"Modern Germany," "The Rise and Decline of the Netherlands," and "British Socialism,"—have all been noticed in these pages during the past few years. They emphasize the politico-commercial interpretation of the development of these three Germanic peoples and contain oft-repeated warnings to Britain against the fate of Holland as a power in the family of nations. Mr. Barker's latest book, "Great and Greater Britain,"[2] is, he tells us in the preface, a study of the political, naval, military, industrial, financial, and social problems of the motherland and the empire. The British world empire, he maintains, is the direct successor of the Dutch world empire. Two and a half centuries ago the Dutch were the greatest commercial people, their navy ruled the seas, and they held the balance of power in Europe in their hands. "They had to solve the identical problems of empire which concern us now. They solved them unwisely, . . . with the result that they lost their navy, their colonies, their trade, their manufacturing industries, and their vast accumulated wealth." Britain, this writer fears, is about to go the same way as the Dutch went. His warning is a vigorous, convincing, and scholarly one.

A very stimulating, picturesque description of the British Isles to-day, with their peoples and the varied temperaments, industries, and problems that make Britons of all racial origins so interesting to the world, is given in a new book entitled "The British Isles,"[3] by Everett T. Tomlinson. This writer, preparing his book chiefly for young people in the form of the experiences of a highly intelligent and observing traveler, has made a very entertaining volume for readers of all ages. The book contains many useful illustrations as well as a number of notes and tables.

REFERENCE BOOKS

"Who's Who," the English biographical dictionary, is now in the sixty-second year of its issue. We have already had occasion so many times to point out the excellent and useful character of this book of reference that nothing further is necessary here than to say that the present edition is the largest yet issued, containing 2162 pages.[4]

A most useful book for the shop man, the home mechanic, and the tinkering youth,—in fact, for any one having a bent for making or mending things,—is the "Handy Man's Workshop and Laboratory."[5] This volume is the outgrowth of a department in the *Scientific American*, devoted to the interests of the handy man, to which amateurs and professionals from all over the country have contributed. This "collection of ideas by resourceful men" contains a thousand ingenious "kinks" and hints for the shop, the home, and the laboratory. The chapters are devoted to "Fitting Up a Workshop," "Shop Kinks," experimental and electrical laboratories, "The Handy Man About the House," and "The Handy Sportsman," including also information about the building of air gliders, one-man dirigibles, and toy flying machines. The book is liberally illustrated with intelligible working drawings.

Another "Handy Book,"[6] this one for girls, deals with the arrangement and the beautifying of the home, suggesting and explaining a variety of things that can be made with a little ingenuity and slight expense. Starting with the girl's own room and its tasty furnishing and adornment, the plan is carried throughout the home, taking up arts and crafts,—simple metal-work, leather-work, tapestry, bead-work, enameling, jewelry-making, block-printing, and a variety of needle and fancy work. Such topics as Christmas and Easter gifts, outdoor occupations, entertaining, physical culture, and novel amusements are included. The book is illustrated with designs and drawings and is altogether an interesting and useful volume for the home.

A well-balanced, useful treatise on logic comes to us from the pen of Dr. Adam Leroy Jones, adjunct professor of philosophy at Columbia.[7] In arrangement and contents this seems to be an excellent little text-book. Advanced students of logic will find, we think, especially

[1] Britain at Bay. By Spenser Wilkinson. Putnam. 192 pp.

[2] Great and Greater Britain. By J. Ellis Barker. Dutton. 380 pp. $3.

[3] The British Isles. By E. T. Tomlinson. Houghton Mifflin. 283 pp., ill. 60 cents.

[4] Who's Who, 1910. Macmillan. 2162 pp. $2.50.

[5] Handy Man's Workshop and Laboratory. Compiled and edited by A. Russell Bond. New York: Munn & Co. 467 pp., ill. $2.

[6] Harper's Handy-Book for Girls. Edited by Anna Parmly Paret. 348 pp., ill. Harper. $1.75.

[7] Logic: Inductive and Deductive. By Adam Leroy Jones. Holt. 304 pp. $1.

interesting the first paragraphs of the introduction on the relation between science and common sense.

OTHER RECENT BOOKS

The speeches of the Hon. William Jennings Bryan, revised and arranged by himself, have been published in two neat and handy volumes.[1] The first volume contains Mr. Bryan's speeches on taxation and bimetalism, while the second is devoted to "Political Speeches," "Speeches in Foreign Lands," "Educational and Religious Speeches," and "Miscellaneous Speeches." The many thousands of Mr. Bryan's admirers, as well as students of politics and lovers of oratory, will be glad to have his addresses in book form; and those who have not had the pleasure of listening to Mr. Bryan's wonderful eloquence may now have an opportunity to read some of the best speeches of America's most famous orator. An interesting biographical sketch is contributed by Mrs. Bryan, and excellent frontispiece portraits accompany each volume.

A substantial volume in the fascinating field of aeronautics is "Airships in Peace and War,"[2] by R. P. Hearne, with an introduction by Sir Hiram Maxim, and seventy-three illustrations. This is a second edition, with seven new chapters, of the author's "Aerial Warfare," published in 1908. A new edition of Mr. Hearne's interesting work, so shortly after the publication of the first, is fully warranted by the wonderful advance and the many notable achievements in the art of flying accomplished during the past two years. The first edition dealt mainly with the military aspects of airships. The change in the title of the volume, occasioned by the addition of much new material, reflects the author's opinion that "aerial navigation is fast approaching an epoch when it will have important uses in peace as well as war."

An entertaining description of the environment of Cornell University is provided by O. D. von Engeln in a volume entitled "At Cornell."[3] The unusual topographical features of the region about Ithaca are pictured in a series of photographs accompanying Mr. von Engeln's text. There are also chapters recounting the history of the university, the distinctive features of the student life of to-day, and the life of Ezra Cornell, the founder.

A painstaking and thorough summary of all the "reliable" evidence on the subject of "the spirit world" is given by Mr. Fremont Rider in his book, "Are the Dead Alive?"[4] The entire field of ghosts, spirit rappings, materializations, table movings, trance writing, telepathy, and clairvoyance is covered, endeavoring to give, as the author says in his preface, "underneath the tremendous accretion of error the nucleus of truth." The volume is illustrated.

An excellent introduction to the study of orchestral and opera music is Dr. Daniel Gregory Mason's "Orchestral Instruments and What They Do."[5] The object of this little book, says Dr. Mason in his prefatory note, is to assist the concertgoer in recognizing the various orchestral instruments, both by sight and by hearing, and to stimulate his perception of the "thousand and one beauties of orchestral coloring."

Whatever the charm of the old mission style of architecture and furniture may be it is certainly almost universal in its appeal. Therein lies much of the seductiveness, in all probability, of the so-called Craftsman style of house-building and house furniture. The very best and elastic application of this style and design has been advocated for some years past by Mr. Gustav Stickley in his magazine *The Craftsman*. He has now gathered together some of the more attractive of the plans for country residences and published them, with descriptive, entertainingly written text, in a volume which he has called "Craftsman Homes."[6] His aim, Mr. Stickley says, has been to bring back to individual life and work the constructive spirit which "during the last half-century has spent its activities in commercial and industrial expansion."

One of the most ambitious and comprehensive works on South America which has recently come to our attention is Mr. Chase S. Osborn's "Andean Land."[7] This two-column descriptive work, handsomely illustrated, gives a great deal of detailed information obtained from personal investigation which is new and cannot fail to be valuable to the intending traveler to South America. Several excellent maps complete the usefulness of the work.

[1] The Speeches of William Jennings Bryan. Funk & Wagnalls. Two vols. 769 pp. $2.

[2] Airships in Peace and War. By R. P. Hearne. John Lane. 324 pp., ill. $3.50.

[3] At Cornell. By O. D. von Engeln. Ithaca, N. Y.: The Artil Company. 347 pp., ill. $1.50.

[4] Are the Dead Alive? By Fremont Rider. New York: B. W. Dodge & Co. 372 pp., ill. $1.75.

[5] The Orchestral Instruments and What They Do. By Daniel G. Mason. New York: H. W. Gray Company. 104 pp., ill. $1.25.

[6] Craftsman Homes. By Gustav Stickley. New York: Craftsman Publishing Company. 205 pp., ill. $1.50.

[7] The Andean Land. By Chase S. Osborn. A. C. McClurg & Co. 2 vols., 643 pp., ill. $5.

The American Review of Reviews

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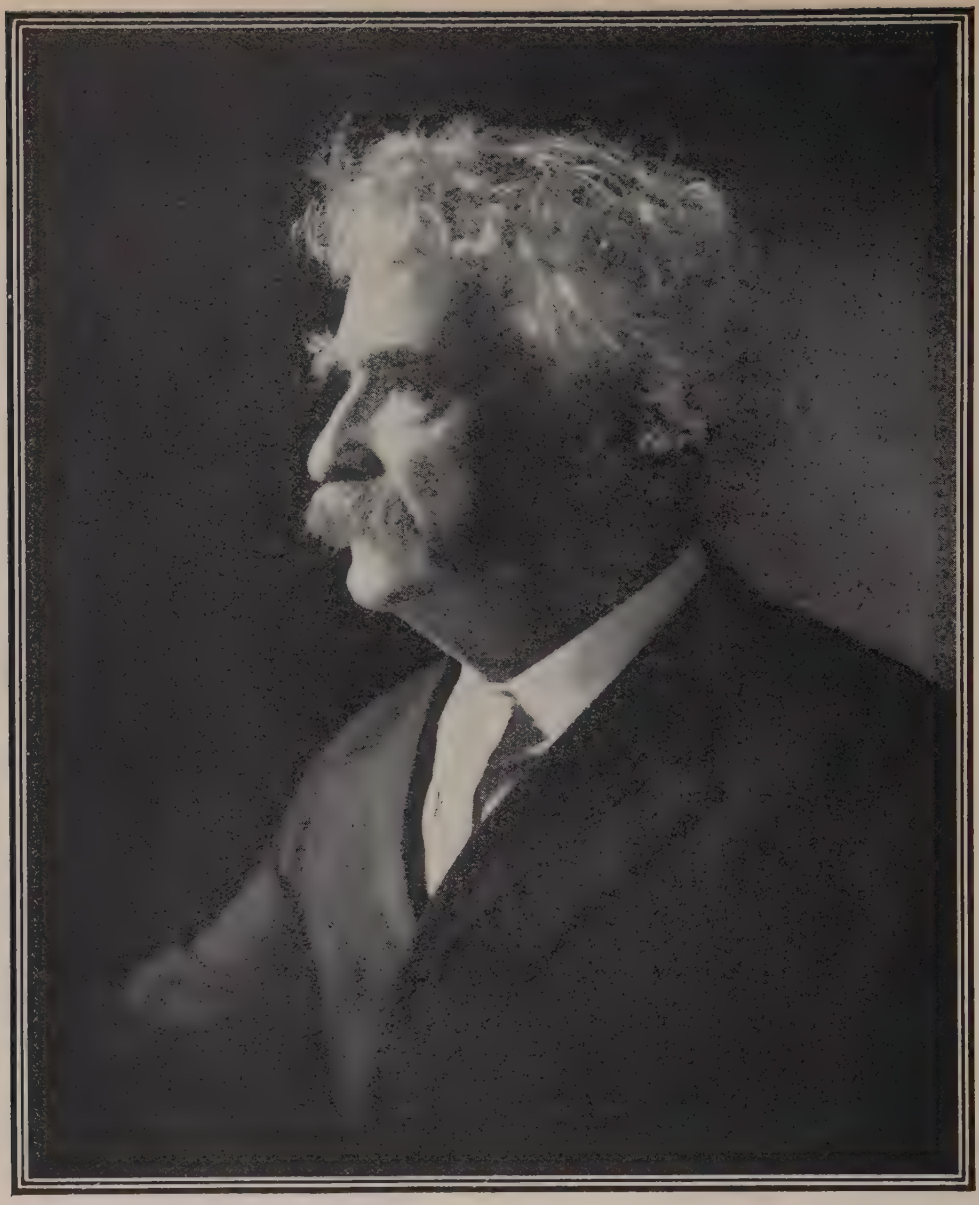

Born November 30, 1835 MARK TWAIN (SAMUEL L. CLEMENS) Died April 21, 1910

If America has produced greater men of letters than Mark Twain, certainly no other writer has held for such a long time so much of the esteem and affection of contemporary Americans. For fifty years Mark Twain has been making the world glad. The twenty-five volumes of his collected works contain one hundred and seventy-one titles, ranging from the boisterous fun-making that was, perhaps, more a literary fashion of the past generation than the present, to his historical writings, of which the best example is "Joan of Arc" (1896). Mr. Clemens' life story is as picturesque as the quality of his humor. Born in 1835 at Hannibal, Missouri, he was apprenticed to a printer at twelve years of age; in early manhood he was pilot of a Mississippi steamboat; at twenty-seven he was editor of a paper in a Western mining camp, and then a real miner himself. In the decade following 1870 he became famous as a humorist. "The Jumping Frog," which more than any other single story began his fame, appeared in 1867. Forty-one years later he was still hard at work writing his autobiography. Two or three years ago Mr. Clemens set up his household gods at Redding Ridge, Connecticut, where he built a stately house in a lovely countryside.

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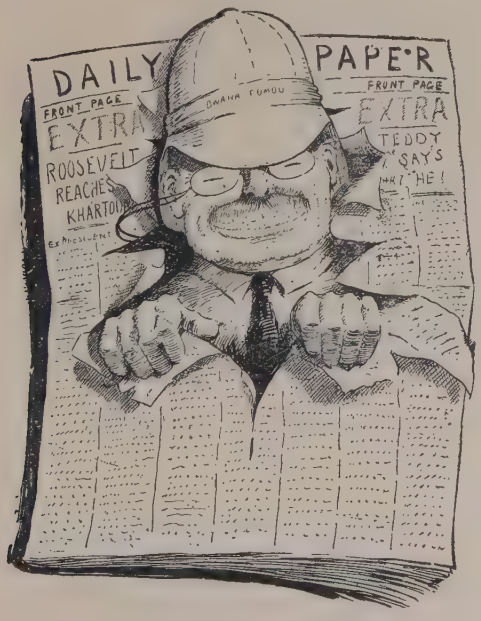
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Roosevelt Facing Homeward

The plain American people will not seek for any hidden motives or pre-arranged schemes to account for the great ovations Mr. Roosevelt is receiving everywhere along the route of his European trip. Nor will they believe that any one has planned Mr. Roosevelt's movements or utterances with a view to affecting American politics or his own future as a public man. From his own standpoint, the many pleasant experiences of his travel in Europe are but a fruitage of his energetic and useful career. All through life he has laid strong, brave hands upon opportunites as they presented themselves, doing well the thing that came to him rather than seeking for something better to do. He put as much energy and enthusiasm into being Police Commissioner of New York City as into being President. In his very youthful days as a member of the Legislature of New York he struck telling blows for reform that have never been forgotten; so that his aggressive work at Albany almost thirty years ago bears a definite, historical relationship to the stirring achievements of the present season for the correction of evils in the law-making and administrative departments of the great State of New York. The same spirit of zeal, enthusiasm, and whole-heartedness that was evident in his work as a legislator at Albany, and afterwards as chairman of the Civil Service Board at Washington, was shown in his literary work, when, for instance, he put his best effort into studying American naval history at the moment of his leaving college and wrote a standard book upon the naval side of our war of 1812. When private circumstances took him to the West and made him a cattle ranchman in the little Missouri country, he seized with characteristic courage and avidity upon the opportunities to share those phases of frontier life that he knew must soon pass away. In his hunting of Western game he was only incidentally the man who destroyed animal life. He was primarily the man who studied animal life, and interpreted it for healthy American boys, in order to keep alive in them the self-reliant and observant qualities of the pioneer race that had for a century or two been redeeming the North American continent. And now he has been studying African faunal life in the same thorough-going way.



BACK IN THE OLD PLACE
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York)

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ROOSEVELT AS "CHANTECLER"
From the *World* (New York)

What Makes Up His "Greatness"?

Mr. Roosevelt simply exemplifies the traits of energy and diligence applied in worthy directions, as the conditions of life have presented their opportunities one after another. It is not the essential thing in his career that circumstances led him into fields of public service and into the holding of our highest offices under democratic forms of government. The important thing is the habit of doing one's best, and being at one's best. Mr. Roosevelt's greatness, whatever that word greatness may signify, is not attested by the fact that he became Governor, Vice-President, and President. Sometimes the holding of high office puts a man where his lack of the quality of greatness becomes painfully visible. Mr. Roosevelt's success as a public man was chiefly due to the fact that private life had no terrors for him. Opportunities for the useful and happy exercise of his faculties lay all about him. He would have found great contentment in doing his best as a farmer, an editor, a lawyer, a soldier, a sailor, an explorer, a college professor, or a writer of books. But it happened that he liked politics and office, and his fellow-citizens called him to those places of public service which his qualities of honesty, versatility, decisiveness, and quick initiative gave him a peculiar fitness for filling with credit and usefulness.

He Has One Supreme Talent

A man who has filled thirty years of maturity with such varied social and political activity as Mr. Roosevelt has shown, can hardly turn in any direction without meeting with pleasant reminders of friendships and asso-

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MR. ROOSEVELT AS HE APPEARED IN EGYPT

ciations that give enrichment to life. It is a favorite idea of one of our most talented contemporary philosophers that few people make effective use of more than a very small percentage of their power to acquire and to achieve. Mr. Roosevelt's supreme talent has simply been the gift of will power enough to cultivate and develop such talents and opportunities as had been vouchsafed him. This is the real lesson that his career thus far ought to teach the average young American. He was plucky and did his best, beginning with the thing close at hand. The young man who would like to be a useful citizen can find plenty of opportunity in his own neighborhood. If he would also like to be more of a scholar, he can read and study and fight against the habit of wasting spare moments. Mr. Roosevelt reads many books on new subjects, in order to widen his knowl-

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MR. AND MRS. ROOSEVELT AND THEIR DAUGHTER AT NAPLES

edge, every year of his life. He does what he can in odd moments to get more knowledge of foreign languages, both for reading and for speaking. He plans deliberately.

He Always Meets Engagements

He tries to be forehanded with everything he has to do. He had agreed to write the story of his hunting experiences for *Scribner's Magazine;* and he did not keep the editors of that monthly waiting for the promised installments, but wrote them as he went along and sent them to America in good time. He agreed to deliver an address at the Sorbonne, in Paris, on April 23, one at Christiania May 5, another at the University of Berlin on May 12, and still another in England, at the University of Oxford, on May 18. In the thick of almost countless other things to do, Mr. Roosevelt prepared these addresses long in advance and copies of them were in the hands of the press associations of the United States, held confidentially for distribution to the American papers, a month in advance of the dates set for their delivery. It will be conceded when they are all duly published that these addresses show broad historical knowledge; high social and political ideals; firm, strong, practical views about modern social conditions. The way in which Mr. Roosevelt has chosen to use his strength of body and power of mind has built up his vitality, increased his capacity for work, saved him from all danger of overstrain and nervous breakdown, brought him through the African jungles with immunity from fever, and developed in him that instinct for doing the right thing that comes with the growth and conservation of so splendid a vitality.

An Instance of Quick Decision

A notable illustration of Mr. Roosevelt's common sense and almost unerring ability to decide and act promptly and wisely in the face of a delicate or critical situation, was presented by an apparent dilemma at Rome, early in April. He declined to be gored by either horn of the dilemma; and neither accepted the opportunity of an audience at the Vatican nor gave any of his limited time to fraternizing with American Methodists who are charged by the Vatican with thinking themselves ordained of Heaven to assail the historic church of Rome under the very shadows of St. Peter's and the papal palace. Mr. Roosevelt has a proper respect for the distinguished personage who holds authority as the head of a great church that numbers

among its adherents many millions of Mr. Roosevelt's fellow-citizens. It was a matter of propriety that in planning for his brief visit at Rome Mr. Roosevelt should have made request to be received by the Pope. If he had not done so, he would have been regarded as lacking in respect and consideration. Monarchs and rulers from Catholic countries in Europe, when visiting Rome, are compelled to have in mind the long-standing differences between the Vatican and the reigning Italian dynasty, as respects the use of Rome as a national and political capital. But these differences are not for an American public man to observe. A Fairbanks or a Roosevelt passing through Rome might properly expect to be received with cordiality by both King and Pope. There was no attempt at the Vatican to embarrass in any way Mr. Roosevelt's reception by the ruling authorities of the kingdom of Italy. But an unfortunate thing had happened upon the occasion of the visit of our former Vice-President, Mr. Fairbanks, at Rome in February, and its sequel prevented Mr. Roosevelt from seeing the Pope.

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FROM A SNAPSHOT IN ROME

The Fairbanks Incident

Mr. Fairbanks had not only made the expected request of presentation to the Pope but he had also accepted an invitation to meet the Methodists in Rome and to address one of their meetings. He is himself a prominent member of the Methodist church, and had agreed to speak in Rome presumably without knowing that just now the Vatican is offended by Methodist activities, while not objecting to the methods of the other bodies of Protestant worshipers who have churches in Rome. The Methodists are supposed to have been carrying on a proselyting mission, with attacks upon the Roman church. And it has not seemed compatible with the dignity of the Pope to grant an audience to a foreign visitor at one hour, with the knowledge that such a visitor at the very next hour has an appointment to address those who are openly criticising and attacking the papacy in the sacred city of Rome. Mr. Fairbanks did not see how he could cancel an engagement already made, and the Vatican under those circumstances declared that the Pope could not receive him. Mr. Fairbanks meant no discourtesy to the Pope, and the Pope intended to inflict no slight upon Mr. Fairbanks. The situation was one which seemed so obvious in all its bearings that this magazine did not discuss it at the time of its occurrence.

MR. ROOSEVELT AND THE ITALIAN KING

Roosevelt Declines Conditions

Mr. Roosevelt would in no case have addressed the Methodist mission in Rome, because he

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MR. ROOSEVELT BIDDING FAREWELL TO THE KING OF ITALY

had most emphatically declared that he would address no body in Rome or elsewhere in Europe, unless he had accepted invitations to give formal lectures. Furthermore, being aware of the Fairbanks incident, Mr. Roosevelt could not possibly have solicited the privilege of an audience with the Pope if he had intended to do anything else in Rome that would, if known about in advance, have led the Vatican to refuse to receive him. These things being so very obvious, it is not a little mystifying just why our Ambassador at Rome, Mr. Leishman, should have thought it necessary to transmit to Mr. Roosevelt any message from the Vatican fixing conditions which, however well intended, could not possibly be accepted when bluntly expressed. Mr. Roosevelt was at Cairo when he received the following dispatch from Ambassador Leishman:

ROME, March 25.—The rector of the American College, in reply to an inquiry I caused to be made, requests that the following communication be transmitted to you: "The Holy Father will be delighted to grant an audience to Mr. Roosevelt on April 5, and he hopes nothing will arise to prevent it such as the much-regretted incident which made the reception to Mr. Fairbanks impossible."

At the same time Mr. Leishman, on his own account, instructed Mr. Roosevelt by cable as follows:

Although fully aware of your intentions to confine your visit to the King and Pope, the covert threat in the Vatican's communication to you is none the less objectionable, and one side or the other is sure to make capital out of the action you might take. The press is already preparing for the struggle.

Mr. Roosevelt's reply was courteous, but clear and prompt, in its declination to make any promises as to his own conduct as a condition of visiting the Vatican. His dispatch was as follows:

It would be a real pleasure to me to be presented to the Holy Father, for whom I entertain a high respect both personally and as the head of a great Church. I fully recognize his right to receive or not receive whomsoever he chooses for any reason that seems good to him, and if he does not receive me I shall not for a moment question the propriety of his action. On the other hand I, in my turn, must decline to make any stipulations or to submit to any conditions which in any way limit my freedom of conduct. I trust that on April 5 he will find it convenient to receive me.

Then came the final dispatch from Mr. Leishman, which ended by quoting Monsigneur Kennedy (the rector of the Catholic American College) as saying that "the audience could not take place excepting on the understanding expressed in the former message."

A Failure of Diplomacy

Mr. Roosevelt had made a merely formal request through the American Embassy for an audience with the Pope. It would seem as if our Embassy, having made the request through the proper ecclesiastical channels, should have declined to transmit to Mr. Roosevelt anything at all about the matter except the granting or refusal to grant an appointment. Mr. Leishman's communications with Mr. Roosevelt were of a sort that might either do injustice to the good intentions of the Vatican, or else put Mr. Roosevelt himself in a position which (through subsequent disclosures) would have embarrassed Mr. Roosevelt very much in his own country either with his Catholic friends on the one hand or his Methodist and other Protestant friends on the other. All such danger was

happily averted by Mr. Roosevelt's prompt publication of all the correspondence, including Mr. Leishman's own interpretations. At Rome Mr. Roosevelt had the good sense to omit the intended reception to Americans at the Embassy, and he wholly avoided any act or any word that could have offended anybody in church or in state. His conduct was approved alike by Catholics and Protestants throughout the United States. Thus our own inference from the incident is the one that has not as yet perhaps been emphasized,—namely, that it merely illustrates the need of diplomatic skill in the treatment of a purely diplomatic situation. Whether Leishman, Kennedy, or Merry del Val was most at fault is yet to be learned. Of course, Mr. Roosevelt's own candor and entire openness saved him from any present or future danger of being misunderstood.

Mr. Wellman's Article

On another page will be found an article on Mr. Roosevelt's European reception and his attitude toward life and politics as he faces homeward. Our own comments on this and preceding pages had just been prepared when Mr. Wellman's article,—written in Europe near the middle of April,—arrived by ocean mail. Mr. Wellman had for some weeks been traveling, with other American correspondents, as an accepted companion of the Roosevelt party. His article in many ways supports the views we are editorially expressing. Mr. Wellman makes it plain that the enthusiastic reception accorded the American traveler by the common people everywhere is even more notable than the remarkable cordiality with which rulers and governments are also giving unstinted tokens of their friendliness and good-will. No stranger was ever so ardently greeted by Hungarians as was Mr. Roosevelt when he visited their beautiful capital, Budapest, before starting for Paris. His first formal address, entitled "Citizenship in a Republic," was planned long in advance to be given at the Sorbonne, in Paris, on April 23. This lecture embodies, in strong, frank paragraphs, Mr. Roosevelt's well-known views about civic and social duties. Once more we have "T. R.'s" preaching of the homely virtues; but it is eloquent and sensible preaching, without any scolding and with graceful appreciation of the fine qualities of the French people. The address in Norway, scheduled for May 5, was to be a brief dissertation upon the subject of peace among the nations. Mr. Roosevelt has long believed that a valuable step toward the reduction of armaments would be found in an agreement limiting the size of battleships. But it is not true, as has been reported in the newspapers, that he is endeavoring to impress such views upon the minds of the rulers and statesmen whom he is now meeting. His visits are a personal matter, and he is keeping them free from any diplomatic or political character.

Forecasting the Future

Mr. Wellman closes his interesting article with some remarks, bearing upon Mr. Roosevelt's future political course, that cannot fail to be regarded as having an especial significance. He is in Europe with Mr. Roosevelt; and we who read his article are here at home with minds more or less actively speculating upon the course Mr. Roosevelt will take when he comes home, in view of the demands that an agitated political situation are sure to make upon him. Mr. Wellman feels himself competent to say that Mr. Roosevelt will not come home to take part in the campaign that lies immediately before us, but that he will take ample time to study and observe. As an ex-President, who will be heartily received by his fellow-citizens next month regardless of parties, it is reasonable enough to believe that he would not wish in the present year to throw himself into the activities of partisan politics. There will be many movements and causes of a non-partisan sort, such as the great conservation movement, in which Mr. Roosevelt can at once take a useful part without becoming involved in any kind of political controversy. Mr. Gifford Pinchot spent a day with his former chief in Italy last month, but it is not to be supposed that Mr. Pinchot would for a moment seek to have Mr. Roosevelt prejudge any matters of dispute with which Mr. Pinchot's name has been connected. The policy of dealing wisely with our national endowment of forests, minerals, waterways, and wild lands has yet to be carried out in necessary legislation, and it has many ramifications. Mr. Roosevelt is its acknowledged leader; and this suggests one of the ways in which his zeal and power are quite sure to be turned to the service of his country. It is not, then, quite reasonable to suppose that Mr. Roosevelt will come home to spring breathlessly to Mr. Taft's defense and to help the Administration punish those Republicans who do not like the Payne-Aldrich tariff; while it is just as un-

MR. G. W. ALDRIDGE

(Who was defeated for Congress in the Rochester, N. Y., district last month)

likely that he will seek an immediate occasion to indorse Senator Beveridge's recent Indianapolis speech attacking the Payne-Aldrich tariff. The country itself seems quite determined to pass some sort of judgment upon various political matters and incidentally also upon the present tariff law. But it seems probable that Mr. Roosevelt would think it just as well for him not to take an active part in various State and national situations that are ripening for culmination in the November elections.

Paradoxes in Our Politics

The distinguished home-comer will certainly find our political waters stirred to their depths. Never was the party situation so full of paradoxes. For example, there was a Congressional election in the Rochester, N. Y., district on April 19, to fill a vacancy caused by the death of Mr. James Breck Perkins, who was a scholarly lawyer and a useful member of Congress. Mr. Perkins, polling simply the normal Republican vote, had been elected less than two years ago by a majority of 10,000. The so-called "boss" of Republican politics for many years at Rochester, and one of the managers of the politics of New York State, has been Mr. George W. Aldridge. This gentleman decided that he would go to Congress, and readily secured his own nomination. He and his friends felt so strongly intrenched that they did not believe his defeat could be possible. The Democrats selected as his opponent Mr. James S. Havens, a lawyer of good standing, who had not been known in recent politics, and had no organization with which to oppose the superb political machine of Mr. Aldridge. Mr. Havens was elected by a plurality of nearly 6000 votes. The situation was watched by the press of the entire country, and the curious thing is that the leading Republican newspapers everywhere seemed to have been even more keenly opposed to Aldridge than were the Democratic papers. Aldridge's candidacy had come at an unfortunate moment for a politician of his kind. A recent legislative investigation at Albany had brought charges of shameless corruption close to the doors of leaders with whom Aldridge was intimately associated. Furthermore, an inquiry into the use of money by fire-insurance companies to promote certain objects at Albany had resulted in showing, among other things, that Mr. Aldridge himself had received a check for $1000. His explanations of this transaction were not such as to persuade the voters at Rochester that he was the right man to go to Congress. Even if it had not been for the Conger-Allds investigation at Albany, and Superintendent Hotchkiss' insurance inquiries, Mr. Aldridge would not have secured a large Republican majority. The people of the country are thoroughly tired of having the Republican party ruled by a set of bosses, and they are quite eager to show their independence at the polls.

Rebellious Republicanism

Thus the election at Rochester was not so much a Democratic victory as an evidence of intelligence, character, and conscience within the Republican ranks. Mr. Seth Low had lately been elected president of the Republican Club of New York and, within a day or two before the Rochester election, had made his inaugural speech as the club's new head. Yet Mr. Low did not hesitate to express to the newspapers his satisfaction in the outcome at Rochester. The best Republicans know the "Black Horse Cavalry" must go or else the party must disintegrate. The grafters, the bosses who manipulate campaign funds, the politicians who act as agents for

corporations or as go-betweens and brokers in legislation, have prospered for a long time. If they cannot be put in the penitentiary they can at least be shorn of their power. Mr. Aldridge at Rochester is reported by the press as having said after the election:

> I'm licked and I know I'm licked. I don't have to have it kicked into me. I have no comment to make beyond this. They are saying that the Republican organization in Monroe County is smashed. That is not so. The organization is intact and I shall remain at its head.

Mr. Aldridge's so-called "organization" is one thing, and the Republican party is another. His organization is maintained by methods abhorrent to decent men. The fact that his organization was "intact" and that he was "at its head" was precisely what led thousands of Republicans to vote for Mr. Havens.

An Instance in Massachusetts

The victory of Havens has an especial significance as following that of Mr. Eugene N. Foss in Massachusetts. The death of Congressman Lovering of the Fourteenth Massachusetts district, on February 4, led to the calling of a special election to fill the vacancy. The Republicans nominated Mr. William R. Buchanan and the Democrats selected as their candidate Mr. Foss, formerly a Republican member of Congress and a man of great independence of character and opinion. Mr. Foss attacked the Payne-Aldrich tariff, favored reciprocity with Canada, and took a position more closely akin to that of the insurgent Republicans than to that of the average organization Democrats. Mr. Lovering's district was normally very strongly Republican, yet on election day, March 22, Mr. Foss came in ahead by 5600 majority.

HON. JAMES S. HAVENS
(Elected Congressman from Rochester, N. Y.)

HON. EUGENE N. FOSS
(Elected Congressman from Massachusetts)

A Rising Tide of Revolt

These elections in Massachusetts and New York are indicative of a widespread feeling that extends from one ocean to the other. The Republican party can be dominated and bossed up to a certain point, and then it rebels. It is this tide of public opinion that has supported the "insurgents" of the House in their attacks upon Mr. Cannon. The country knows very little about the merits of the dispute over the House rules, but it feels that Mr. Cannon and the group of House leaders, like Dalzell, Payne, and others near to the Speaker, have been doing things in an arbitrary way and dictating the action of Congress from the standpoint of their own views and wishes rather than from that of open

discussion and appeal to public opinion. The country has come to think that a sort of star-chamber system has ruled the House, and it demands a change. This is not so much to be construed as an attack upon Mr. Cannon personally as it is a revolt against the arbitrary use of great power. Following the brilliant victories of Foss in Massachusetts and Havens in New York came the announcement that Senators Aldrich and Hale were going to retire from the Senate at the expiration of their present terms next March.

Aldrich and Hale

Mr. Aldrich's mastery in the Senate has been due not merely to the powerful aggregation of interests he is supposed to represent, but also to great personal qualities that make him a natural leader among men. But the whole country is ablaze with revolt against Senator Aldrich's domination of the Senate; and the fight has been carried back into his little State of Rhode Island at a moment when the pendulum is swinging violently away from the type of Republicanism that has been the mainstay of certain business interests. The proposed retirement of Aldrich is followed by that of Hale, of Maine, as a matter of course. Aldrich is a leader in his own right, who can stand out and face a difficult situation like a man. Mr. Hale has used power insolently, but from behind the scenes, so to speak. He is never spoken of as a man who dares to come out in the open to face his foes and take his medicine. With Aldrich out of the Senate, Hale's power in the body would be reduced to something like that of the late Senator Platt, of New York, in his last years. Leadership, in the Aldrich sense, is something that the Senate of the United States ought not to have. Each Senator should be his own leader. Mr. Aldrich proposes to go on with the work of the Monetary Commission. In our opinion his work thus far on the great project of devising a good system of banking and currency for the United States has been in every sense disinterested, honorable, and statesmanlike. Men who are not carried away by undue political prejudice will be very glad to see Mr. Aldrich remain as chairman of the Monetary Commission and will hope that his physical ailments may find speedy remedy. His heart has been in the study of financial reform, and by no means in that tissue of compromises known as the Payne-Aldrich tariff. The head of a Monetary Commission sees the need of a Tariff Commission.

The Tariff and the Party

Mr. Foss and many other Democrats claim that the recent political events to which we have been alluding are to be interpreted chiefly by the dissatisfaction of the country with the Payne-Aldrich tariff. That, of course, has a certain measure of truth in it. But the people are not so much dissatisfied with the tariff as with the way in which it was framed. And even more than that are the people aroused by the attempt to make the tariff a test of good party standing. Mr. Taft's overpraise of the tariff in several of his speeches has not been convincing to the country as respects the tariff itself, while it has created everywhere an impression that he is not doing justice to his own best intellectual powers. It was in no sense an administration tariff when its principal features were shaped and its hundreds of details threshed out by the Congress committees. In its final stages every one remembers that Mr. Taft used the threat of the veto power in endeavoring to secure a few reductions and a few additions to the free list. All through the debates of the special tariff session last spring and summer the so-called "insurgent" Senators supposed they were fighting Mr. Taft's battle for him. The attitude that he and the administration have chosen to assume towards the more independent Republican sentiment of the country is sorely puzzling to many people. Certainly it makes no party capital.

Politics and the Administration

Mr. Taft's first year has so much excellent work to its credit that it is deeply to be regretted that the country, mistakenly or not, should regard it as having been incessantly taken up with politics. The Attorney-General, in a speech at Chicago last month, made out a telling case for the achievements of the administration thus far; and good men of both parties have no wish to disparage honest and intelligent public work. Good government is such a crying need of the hour that we all welcome it wherever we can find it; and it is only in public speeches that men ever think of claiming all the virtues for one political party. The country wished and expected Mr. Taft to devote himself broadly to the duties of the Presidency rather than to assert himself as the head of the Republican party. He has never been known as a party man, in the sense of helping to run mere organizations; nor have the members of the cabinet, with perhaps two exceptions. This was to have been an administration of legal

and business talent, and not one of aggressive partisanship. Yet even Mr. Wickersham, with his broad and tolerant mind,—himself a natural independent and kicker,—obediently assumed at Chicago the inappropriate rôle of excommunicating the great Western Senators who do not like the tariff bill and who have not always been meek under the Aldrich-Hale control of the Senate.

Heresy-Hunting a la Taft

Who would have dreamed that this composite Taft administration,—made up of one Northern Democrat, one Southern Democrat, the able leader of the insurgent faction of Missouri Republicans, a statesman from Pennsylvania famous for demanding and allowing the right of independent judgment, and a brilliant lawyer from New York supposed at heart to be a mugwump, if not a free-trader, —could have ventured forth on a heresy-hunting crusade to punish any man whose Republican orthodoxy might fail to respond to the Payne-Aldrich test! In political associations, as in religious bodies, the upholders of orthodoxy have usually assailed the very men who were the saving salt of the organization because they were honest and did their own thinking. And who would ever have supposed that a man of Mr. Taft's religious affiliations would have become in politics an almost fanatical heresy-hunter? To read Senator Beveridge out of the Republican party in Indiana would be something like trying to read Mr. Roosevelt out of the Republican party of the State of New York. And as for the Republicanism of Dolliver and Cummins, it is at least a good deal more substantially supported at home in Iowa by those who vote the Republican ticket than can be said just now,—when one considers the troubled aspects of Ohio politics,—for that of any Republican leader, however orthodox, who votes in the Buckeye State.

TOO MUCH FOR INDIANA

THE LADY: "Oh, Willie, how can you pretend to like it!"

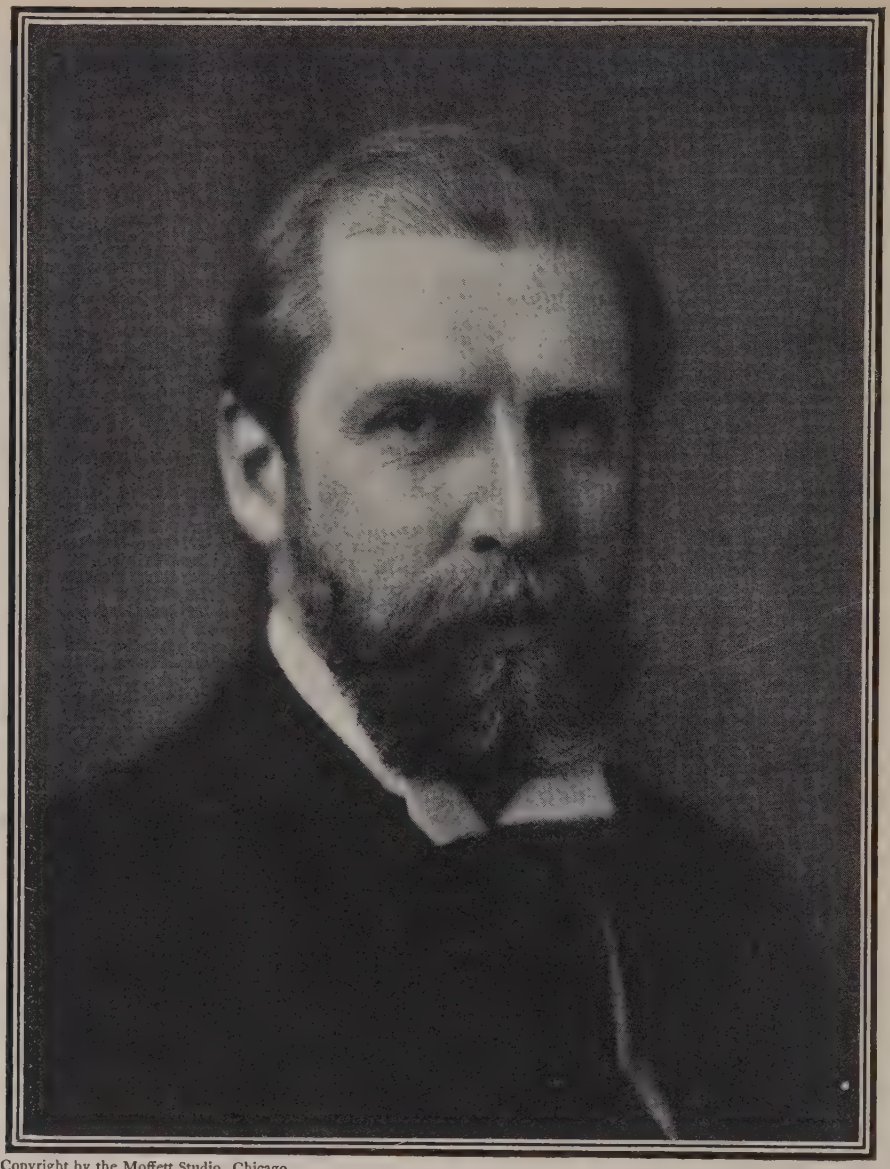
From the *Daily News* (Chicago)

MR. TAFT'S GENTLE HINT

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

Beveridge and the Hoosier Situation

In brief, it is all quite futile to try to punish the Republican insurgents at a moment when the insurgents seem to be the only Republicans that the country regards as comparatively immune. Mr. Beveridge is indeed going to have a hard time to carry Indiana, but not through any fault of his own. His refusal to vote for the Payne-Aldrich bill and his splendidly courageous speech last month at the State Republican convention, far from hurting his prospects, form part of that record upon which he has a good fighting chance to win. If we had adopted the plan of voting directly for United States Senators, Mr. Beveridge would at this moment carry his State by a majority of perhaps 200,000 votes. The people of Indiana love him not merely for what he has done but also for the enemies he has made. His convention was composed of 1800 picked Republicans from every nook and corner of the State, and it supported him with extraordinary enthusiasm. The platform sustained his record and demanded a proper tariff commission.



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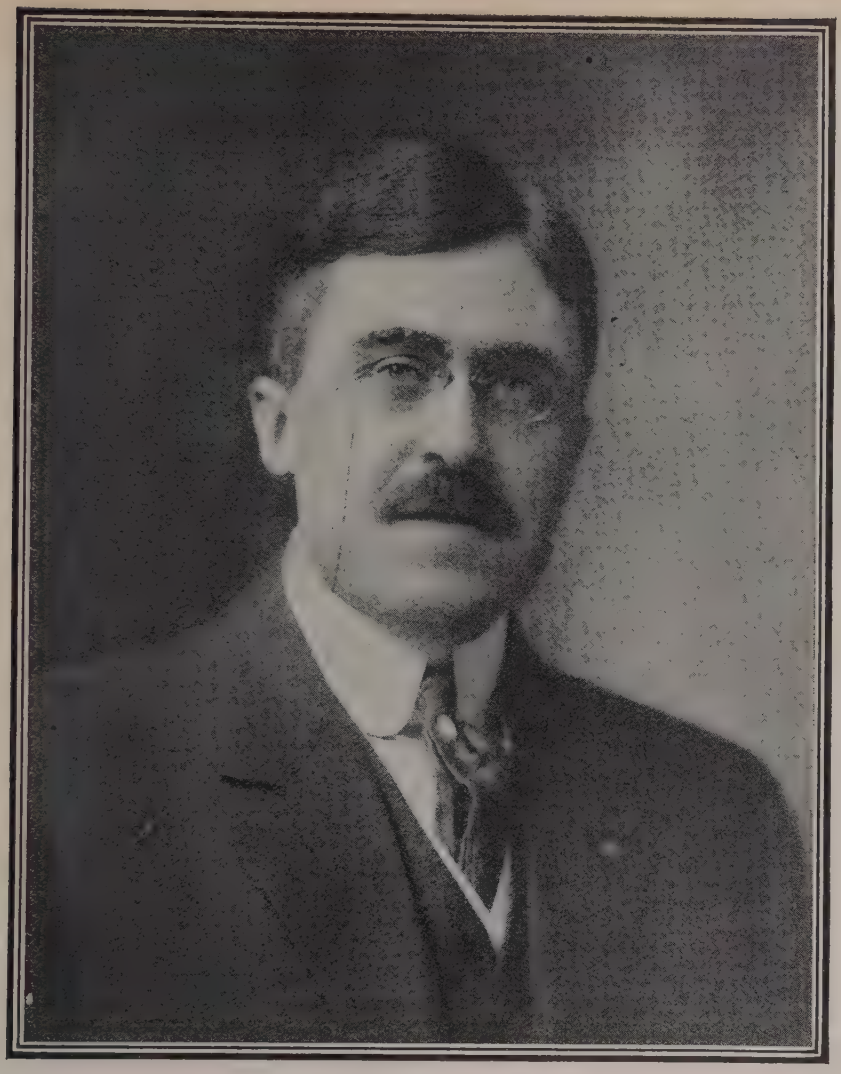
GOVERNOR HUGHES OF NEW YORK
(Who will succeed Justice Brewer on the Supreme Bench)

The Outlook in General

The general attitude of the Republican party, as embodied in those leaders who are opposing progressive ideas, is in marked disfavor with the voters; and it is going to be very hard for Republicans to hold their own in the November elections this year if they can claim nothing better for their party than the enactment of the Payne-Aldrich tariff. In Indiana, for example, it is a question of electing a Republican Legislature in a season when the swing throughout the country is strongly towards the other party. In Mr. Taft's own State of Ohio, where an incomparable organization was brought into shape for his benefit two years ago, the Democrats, under the leadership of Governor Harmon, seem destined to win a victory, while the Republicans are in discord and as sheep without a shepherd. In the State of New York a remarkable condition exists. So many evidences of corruption have been brought to light following the support of the charges against State Senator Allds that Governor

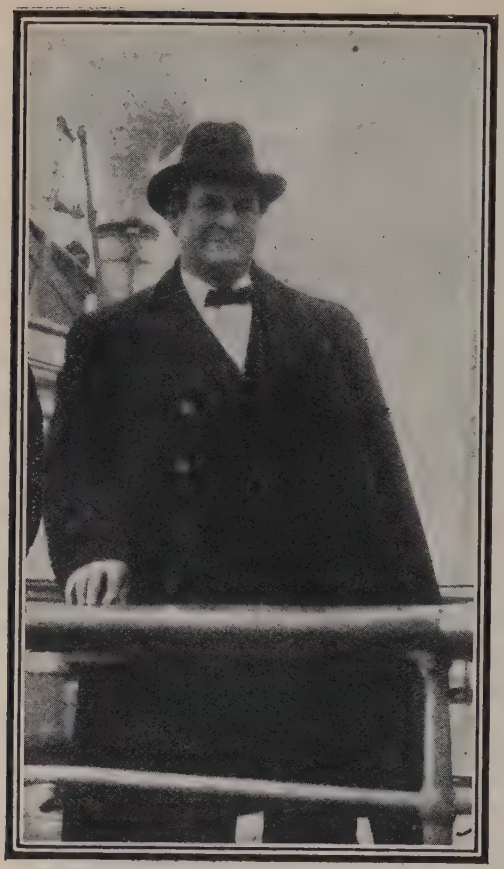


HON. WILLIAM H. HOTCHKISS, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE NEW YORK STATE INSURANCE DEPARTMENT, AND ONE OF THE NEW PROGRESSIVE LEADERS OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY

Hughes last month demanded a sweeping investigation in the face of an approaching campaign. Old-fashioned politicians would have said that this was like proceeding to dig one's own grave. The truth is exactly contrary to the old view. The Republican party after the Albany exposures and the defeat of Aldridge at Rochester could not possibly hope to carry New York except with candidates and a platform of the most progressive sort. The only thing that can save the Republican party in New York is the exhibition of courage and honesty in exposing and punishing corruption wherever it can be found. A full inquiry just now will help the party.

No Dearth of New Leaders

Superintendent Hotchkiss, head of the Insurance Department, has been unearthing relationships between insurance companies and lawmakers at Albany that have had much to do with the demand for a broader investigation into the buying and selling of legislative favors. Mr. Hotchkiss is one of those men of thorough training and wide accomplishments who can be counted upon to perform well whatever public work they are assigned. As the old machine crumbles away and the old leaders are shorn of power, men of better training and of finer spirit inevitably come to the front. Thus Havens, of Rochester, Hotch-



HON. WILLIAM J. BRYAN AS HE APPEARED LAST MONTH ON ARRIVING AT NEW YORK

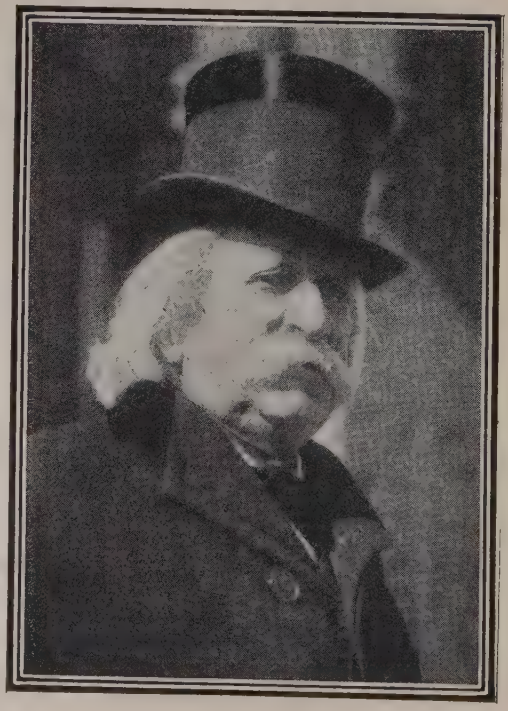
kiss, of Buffalo, and several of the newer political leaders in the City of New York are men of the Hughes type in public spirit, legal and political knowledge, and aptitude for governmental work. The Republican party has a wonderful power of self-discipline and rejuvenation. It is usually a more efficient party than the Democratic. It does not follow inevitably, therefore, that the revolt within the Republican party is going to lead to sweeping Democratic victory. The one thing that everybody who has a clear vision now understands is that the progressive spirit cannot be stamped out of the Republican party without involving that organization in hopeless defeat.

Democratic Standard-Bearers

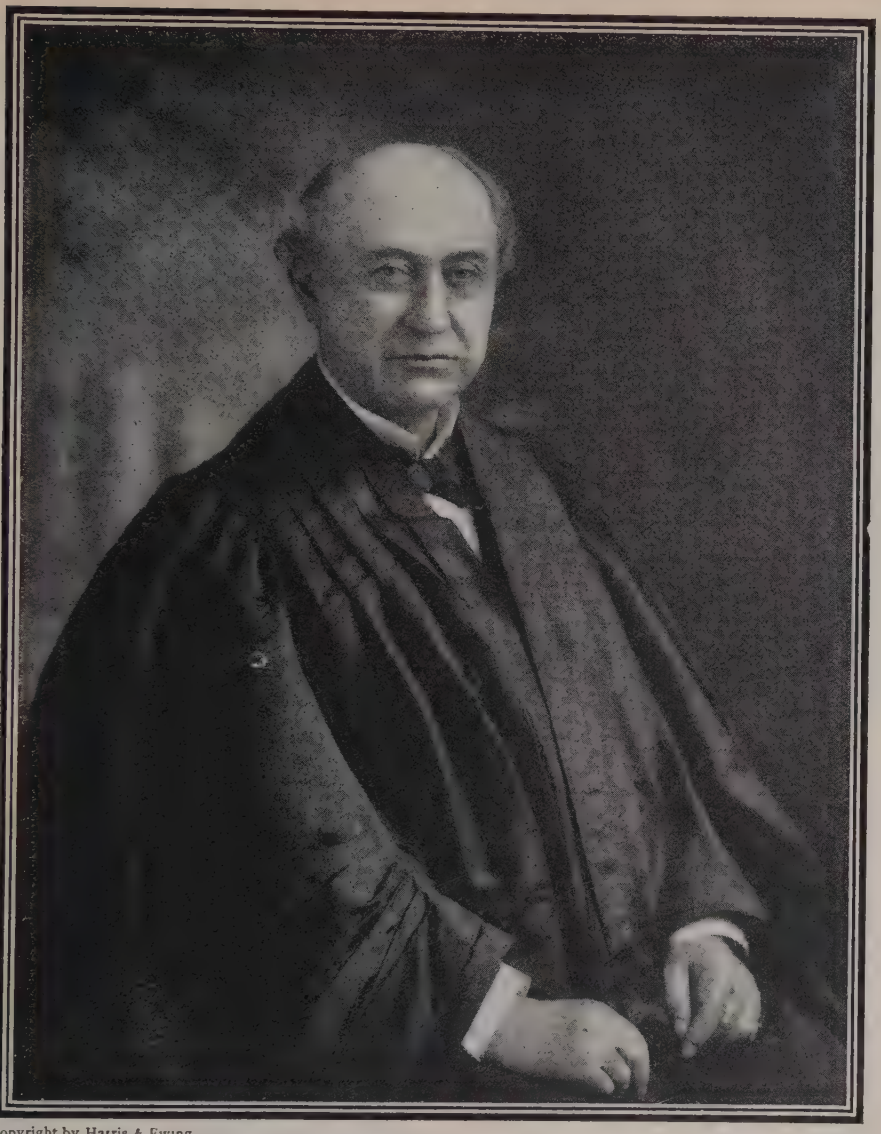
Mr. William J. Bryan returned last month from his sojourning in the republics of Latin America in time to applaud the Rochester election as a forerunner of future Democratic success. His return again raises the question of Democratic Presidential candidates. At present the man most generally talked about is Governor Harmon, of Ohio, and the second on Democratic lips is Mayor Gaynor, of New York City, whose record thus far in his great municipal office has been one of remarkable achievements. It is conceivable that the Democrats might elect him Governor next November, in which case his outlook for the Presidential nomination would be very favorable. Thus far Judge Gaynor has steadily refused to be drawn into any form of political discussion or to make any declaration whatever regarding party politics, in this as in other matters of official conduct setting an excellent example.

The Work of the Supreme Court

The business world was anxiously awaiting decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States in the great Tobacco and Standard Oil cases when on Monday, April 11, Chief Justice Fuller announced that these cases would have to be argued again before the court. This means virtually a postponing of the decision for another year. On March 28 Justice David J. Brewer had suddenly died and Justice Moody has been absent in Massachusetts for a long time, owing to illness. It was felt likely that the court would be divided and



A NEW GLIMPSE OF CHIEF JUSTICE FULLER



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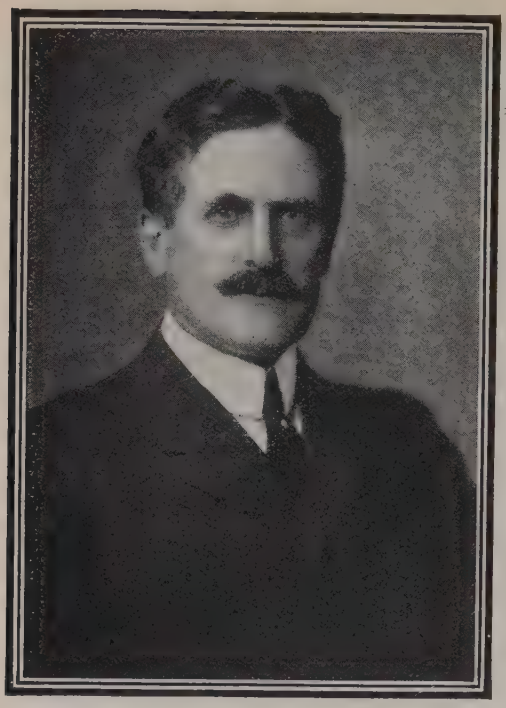
THE LATE JUSTICE DAVID J. BREWER OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT

that there ought to be a full bench before matters of such vast consequence were finally passed upon. Judge Brewer was almost seventy-three years old, and for forty continuous years had been either a State or a Federal judge, half of the time on the Supreme bench. He was a man of great vigor of mind and freedom of expression. The vacancy caused by his death had not been filled as these pages closed for the press, although it was understood that President Taft was making overtures to Governor Hughes, of New York. Justice Moody's early return to the bench is not probable. Chief Justice Fuller and Justice Harlan are seventy-seven years of age, and their retirement cannot be long deferred. Matters of immense moment relating to the regulation and control by government of the business interests and methods of this commercial age are likely to be affected profoundly by interpretations that our highest tribunal will place upon existing statutes. It was at one time thought that President Taft himself would almost certainly succeed Chief Justice Fuller. Quite as difficult as the task of interpreting the laws is that of selecting the men who for years to come will fix the complexion of the court.



HON. MYRON T. HERRICK, OF OHIO

Inefficiency in Public Business

The scrutiny to which some of the big appropriation bills in Congress were subjected last month revealed many illustrations of the unbusiness-like methods that ex-Governor Herrick complains of in his able discussion of the subject of waste in public expenditure which we publish on page 600 of this number. In the course of that discussion Mr. Herrick alludes to the valuable work of the Bureau of Municipal Research in New York and of the Merriam Commission in Chicago in exposing not merely ordinary and incidental graft but fundamental inefficiency in accounting methods resulting in a steady drain on the municipal finances. The fact that one of the Chicago officials resigned under fire, while indictments have been found against others, is not the only result of the Merriam Commission's disclosures. The thing that should cause rejoicing is the prospect that the entire city administration will now be put on a business basis so far as accounting is concerned. The rapid spread of the "commission plan" of city government throughout the country means that business men are everywhere waking up to the necessity of applying in all departments of public business the same up-to-date methods that are considered essential in private business.

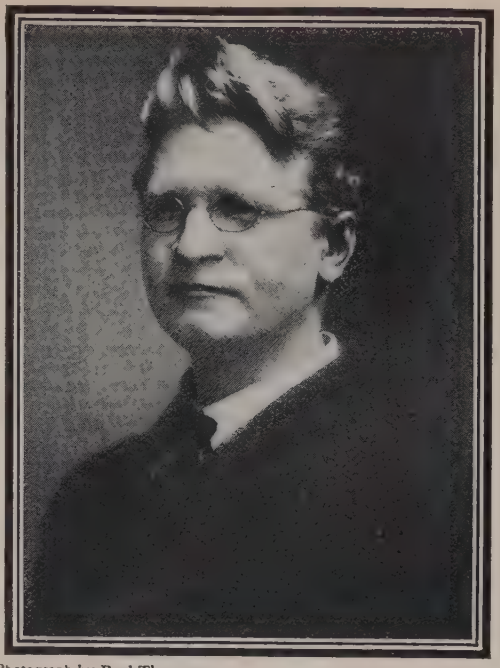
The Pittsburg Revelations

There is little to relieve the monotonously sordid nature of the Pittsburg bribery disclosures. During the past two months a score of members of the City Councils have confessed to receiving bribes for their official action, about forty indictments have been presented by the Grand Jury, and altogether more than one hundred men have been implicated in the bribery cases, including several important personages in the business world who stand charged with purchasing legislation. Six banks which wished to secure deposits of city money are charged with the same offense. Such a revelation of venality was never before made in any American city, save possibly in San Francisco, but there is good reason to believe that other American municipalities might profit by a similar season of confession and repentance. Deplorable as Pittsburg's situation is, it is far from hopeless so long as a group of public-spirited citizens stands behind the prosecuting officials and demands the exposure and punishment of the briber as well as the bribed.

The Socialists Carry Milwaukee

Last month the city of Milwaukee, with a population of about 350,000, elected a Socialist Mayor and City Council. Emil Seidel, the Socialist Mayoralty candidate, received a plurality of over 7000 votes, while his party carried fourteen out of twenty-three wards and elected six Aldermen-at-Large. Thus the city government for the coming two years will be completely in Socialist control. The result, revolutionary as it seems, was not a sudden development. The growth of the Socialist vote in Milwaukee for the past decade has been steady. Two years ago it had become almost exactly one-third of the total city vote. This year it added over 30 per cent. to its own record figures of 1908, leaving both the Democrats and the Republicans hopelessly in the rear. This remarkable shift of votes is partly explained by general dissatisfaction with the city's administration, partly by a tremendously active Socialist propaganda, including a weekly house-to-house distribution of literature by trained squads of workers, and partly by the work that had already been done by Socialists who had been elected to the City Council and by Socialist members of the Wisconsin Legislature. Milwaukee had suffered from jobbery, graft, and corporation rule, and was clamoring for any change that promised reform. The Socialists have campaigned persistently

against food-adulteration, the contract system of public works, and graft in the city garbage plant, and in favor of municipal ownership and model tenements. Moreover, their representatives in the council have taken a leading part in effecting important economies in the city government. In his inaugural address Mayor Seidel named among the reforms for which his administration is pledged to work the improved sanitation of factories, the bettering of conditions under which labor on city works is performed, and the establishment of a Bureau of Municipal Research, leading to the installation of a complete cost-keeping system for every municipal department. The new administration is also pledged to prevent overcrowding of street-cars and to compel the company to clean the cars regularly, to furnish enough cars, to sprinkle the streets between tracks, and to give the shortest route for transfers. The Socialists as a party expect to secure for Milwaukee the municipal ownership of gas and ice plants, a three-cent street-car fare, an eight-hour day, and work for the unemployed at union wages. Whatever may be thought of this program, it can hardly be regarded as subversive of the rights of property.



Photograph by Paul Thompson

HON. EMIL SEIDEL

(The newly elected Mayor of Milwaukee)

DISTRICT-ATTORNEY BLAKELEY, OF PITTSBURG

(In charge of the graft prosecutions)

Negro Disfranchisement

Only the veto of Governor Crothers last month prevented the adoption by the State of Maryland of a plan for negro disfranchisement which involved virtual nullification of the Fifteenth Amendment to the federal Constitution, so far as State and local elections are concerned. The Legislature passed a bill refusing the privilege of registration for such elections to members of the negro race. None of the Southern States has ever gone so far as this in depriving the negro of the suffrage, and the fact that in those States franchise laws had been framed on the assumption of the validity of the Fifteenth Amendment influenced the Governor in withholding his approval from the radical Maryland enactment. The new State of Oklahoma, which was not supposed to have a "negro problem," may go on record as refusing to the great body of her negro citizens a vote on constitutional amendments. This proposition will be submitted to the people as an "initiative" petition for an amendment to the State constitution.

Raise the "Maine"!

Congress has at last taken a decided step for the removal of a national disgrace. A resolution passed by the House last month provides for

HON. WILLIAM SULZER, OF NEW YORK

(The father of the raising-of-the-*Maine* project, who has steadily grown in reputation during his eight successive terms in Congress)

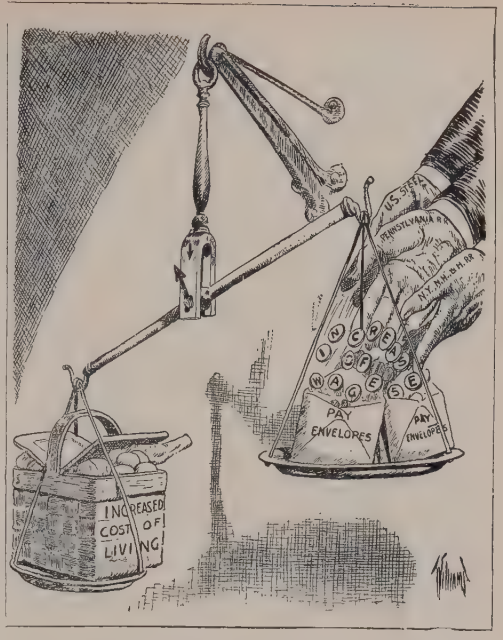
the raising and removal of the battleship *Maine* from Havana Harbor, where it was sunk on February 15, 1898, and for the transfer of the bones of her sailors remaining in the hull to American soil. Such action is eminently appropriate, though somewhat tardy. "Remember the Maine" was the ringing battle-cry of Americans in the Spanish-American War, but during the twelve years that have since elapsed the noble ruin has remained unremembered so far as concerned Congressional action looking toward its removal. Little attention, in fact, has actually been paid to it, except for the passing glance of the traveler in Havana Harbor and the annual tribute of a floral decoration by American residents in Cuba. Congressman Sulzer has repeatedly introduced bills for the raising of the *Maine* and has for many years labored, in season and out of season, for the accomplishment of this patriotic object. His zealous efforts, backed by a widespread sentiment and numerous resolutions of State legislatures and private organizations, have at last borne fruit. Should the Senate concur, the hulk of the *Maine* will not much longer remain a "lodger in the sea king's halls," and the bones of her brave sailors will be removed to a resting place in the national cemetery at Arlington. Certainly the American people will not be afraid of the effect of any light that may be thrown on the nature of the explosion that sunk the *Maine* through the bringing of the wreck to view. If the truth on this point can be clearly ascertained history will be satisfied and the incident will be definitely closed.

Two New Battleships

The House last month voted to adhere for the present to the two-battleships-a-year rule. After a seven-hour session the naval appropriation bill was passed in its original form, authorizing two new ships of the Dreadnought type, two fleet colliers, and four submarines. The construction work on these ships is to be done under the eight-hour law. The total amount carried by the bill is $128,037,602. There was the usual opposition from those advocates of peace who see no necessity for building additional battleships; but the policy of adequate preparation prevailed. In this connection it is interesting to note the statement made by Secretary Meyer in a recent speech, that the purchase of eight additional battleships, at an outlay of $50,000,000, would have prevented the Spanish-American war. That brief conflict cost the country $507,000,000 in immediate outlay, and it has already cost $20,000,000 in pensions. During the year he has been in his present office Secretary Meyer has been working upon a plan of reorganization for the Navy Department and the inspection of the yards. Until about six months ago, he informs us, the organization at Washington was practically the same as it was in 1842, when the naval expenditures were $8,000,000, with a tonnage of 78,500 and about 12,000 officers and men. To-day the expenditures are $130,000,000, with a tonnage of 1,250,000 and officers and men to the number of 46,893. Mr. Meyer strongly favors legislation, as recommended by President Taft, under which it will be possible to secure younger officers for our ships. The officers in the higher grades of our navy average a little older than those of the same grades in the principal European powers. The new scheme of promotions has been so drawn up as to involve no increased expense. Secretary Meyer has a tremendous task ahead of him in this reorganization work, and he is to be commended for his zealous efforts in behalf of the proposed reforms.

Exit Brownsville!

The famous Brownsville case seems at last to have been settled. It is now three years since a battalion of the Twenty-fifth Infantry, stationed at Brownsville, Texas, was charged with "shooting-up" the town and was dismissed from the army. The dismissal of the troops provoked a great discussion in Congress and elsewhere, and a number of investigations was made by various commissions and courts of inquiry, the charges being repeatedly sustained. On behalf of those soldiers of the battalion who were innocent of any participation in the affair, President Roosevelt recommended that an opportunity be given for re-enlistment. Congress accordingly established a court in inquiry to determine which members of the discharged battalion should be eligible. Last month this court of inquiry made its report, unanimously sustaining the charges and declaring fourteen of the soldiers to be entitled to re-enter the army. The War Department as well as the country at large will be glad to have the affair out of the way for good. The House last month took a step that will mean a considerable reduction in our annual pension bill, provided it meets with the approval of the Senate. It decided to abolish all the branch pension agencies in the country, transacting business from the central bureau at Washington. The total appropriation for pensions this year, it is interesting to note, is actually $5,000,000 less than that of last year.



RESTORING THE BALANCE

From the *Herald* (Boston)

Accident Relief for Steel Workers

With the air so full of labor troubles as the month began, it would have been difficult to believe that by the middle of April so much could be done as actually was done to settle the differences of employers and employees, and to bring about the promise of permanently better relations. The history of these few weeks shows unmistakably that the great employers of labor are realizing strongly the justice and expediency of looking at the interests of their workmen as much as possible from the workmen's point of view. The most significant advance in this direction was made by the United States Steel Corporation, which announced the beginning of a plan for dealing with workingmen's injuries and deaths, a matter which had been under consideration for a year. Under the new plan, all employees of the Steel Corporation will receive relief in case of injuries sustained in the course of their work without recourse to the law, and quite aside from any fact of legal liability of the corporation. Unmarried men are to receive, in the event of temporarily disabling accidents, 35 per cent. of their regular wages; married men, 50 per cent. of their wages and 5 per cent. additional for every child under sixteen years of age. A further increase in the relief payment is earned by length of employment,—2 per cent. for every year's service in excess of five. For permanent injuries, lump sums are to be paid, graded according to the degree of the physical loss. In the case of work accidents resulting in death, the family is to receive one and one-half years' wages, with an additional 5 per cent. for every child under sixteen years, and 3 per cent. for every year of service above five. Chairman Gary, of the Steel Corporation, was careful in his announcement of the plan to explain that these payments are for relief and not for compensation. He estimates that in case of at least 75 per cent. of the payments to be made the corporation will have no legal liability whatsoever. The plan is based on a careful and intelligent study of the workmen's liability laws of Germany and other European countries. Another radical improvement in the steel workers' lot is wrought by the closing of the plants on Sunday. The corporation's managers have come to the conclusion that every employee should have

twenty-four continuous hours of rest in each week. Mr. Gary added to these announcements the information that the officers of the corporation are now working on a further plan for pensioning employees. The International Harvester Company, which has on its board several of the most active and influential directors of the Steel Corporation, has put into practice a very similar schedule of accident relief payments. It is noteworthy that neither of these progressive steps in the science of dealing with labor was the result of any demand or suggestion of the employees of these two great industrial organizations.

400,000 Men Get More Pay

About the same time that the Steel Corporation announced its accident relief program came the news that all of its employees, except the higher salaried men, are to be given an increase of wages, this being the voluntary action of the employer, in recognition of the larger demands of living expenses. The increase in wages will be about 5 per cent. The corporation is now employing nearly 225,000 men, and it is estimated that this step will add about $9,000,000 to its annual payroll. It comes on top of the corporation's maintenance of the old schedule of wages through 1907 and 1908, when nearly all the independent steel makers reduced the pay of their workmen. Turning to the railroad field, we find a long list of companies that have peaceably met the demands of their employees during the past month. The New York Central's trainmen, after coming to the very verge of a strike, were glad to accept the company's offer to settle the matter by arbitration. The New Haven road has acceded to its men's demands, and, incidentally, has announced some increases in passenger fares. The Pennsylvania Railroad voluntarily gave 175,000 employees (all except the salaried men receiving $300 or more per month) an increase of 6 per cent. The Lehigh Valley, the Norfolk & Western, the Reading, the Boston & Maine, the Delaware & Hudson, and the "Big Four" have given their men an increase of from 6 to 8 per cent., and the Delaware & Lackawanna has, like the New York Central, agreed to submit the matter to arbitration. The non-union soft coal miners of West Virginia, Maryland, and southern Pennsylvania have been given a higher schedule of wages, and the great strike of the 300,000 union miners of bituminous coal seemed, in the last week of April, to be nearing a settlement. This rapid clearing up of the labor situation leaves the rather fierce strike of papermakers, and that of the New York harbor tugboat masters, as the only current labor troubles of more than local importance for which a way out is not easy.

The Promise of the Crops

Always of large importance, the April crop reports of the Government were awaited this year with special interest and anxiety, due to the halting and uncertain course of security prices and to many rumors of a slackening of trade. The Government report of April 1 on winter wheat gave a condition of 80.8 per cent., against 82.2 per cent. last April, and a ten years' average for that month of 87. The crop had deteriorated since December 1, 1909, no less than 15 points. On its face this did not look encouraging, and the first response of the markets showed disappointment. But early in the month came news of general rains in the wheat-growing States, and people began to look below the surface of the "condition" percentages. The acreage of winter wheat this year is 3,600,000 acres,—about 10 per cent. more than last year. It is an invariable rule that a deterioration in the winter wheat crop comes between December and April; this year the weather throughout the latter month has done its best to repair the ravages of winter, so that at the end of April it seemed fair to expect a very good crop of the cereal, probably as large as the country produced last year,—446,000,000 bushels. Conditions have been worst in Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, and Missouri, which show condition percentages ranging from 64 to 75. The Northwestern fields and those of the Pacific Coast are in fine fettle, ranging from 93 per cent. for Oregon to 97 for Montana and 98 for California. The outlook in the South for cotton is excellent. The autumn-planted rye is in splendid shape, showing even on April 1, before the arrival of the much-needed rains, a condition five points above the average. Predictions are being made that the farm products of 1910 will amount in money value to $9,000,000,000, which would be a new record for the United States.

Our Exports of Foodstuffs

A peculiar interest is aroused in the prosperity of our farms this year by the recent trend of our exports of foodstuffs. An important part of the decrease, since June, of $152,000,000 in our excess of exports, is the falling off in the

wheat and corn and bacon and lard sent to Europe. The current year will show, for instance, only one-third as much wheat exported as in 1898, not one-fifth as much corn, scarcely more than one-fourth as much beef, less than a third as much bacon, and about the same proportion of cattle; while the exports of lard, a very large item absolutely, shows a falling off of nearly 50 per cent. Cotton is the only important product of our farms which holds up in export figures. It has been widely predicted that this tendency, which has been progressive since about 1898, will continue until very soon America will cease entirely to sell foodstuffs to Europe; that we shall not be able to raise more food than we need for our own people. Such predictions have, however, been made before with equal confidence, only to be disproved by the effect of a coincidence of bountiful crops in the new world, with shortages in the old world. If no disaster comes later on this year to our farms, it looks as if the tendency would at least be interrupted by an abundance of foodstuffs in America, and lower prices for them,—prices which are not too high for the hungry people of Europe to pay.

An International Congress of Poles

By a rather interesting coincidence just as the representatives of all the Slavic societies of the United States were requesting the President to permit the census figures to show their racial distinctions rather than merely the political entities to which they are subject in the Old World, the newspapers announced the program for the Pan-Polish Congress to be held early in the present month at Washington. This is the first time that Poles from all over the world will be represented in a congress, and the delegates, we are told, will include many of the most prominent Polish leaders and representatives from the Austrian, Russian, and Prussian sections of the old commonwealth. Political leaders, literary lights, artists, and other eminent representatives of the Polish people will be present, including Henryk Sienkiewicz, the world-famous Polish author. The occasion will be the unveiling of the monuments to Kosciuszko and Pulaski, the Polish patriots who assisted the American people in their war for independence. The monument to General Pulaski is erected by authority of an act of Congress, while the monument to General Kosciuszko was presented to the American people by the Polish National Alliance and other Polish organizations in the United States. The purpose of the congress is to discuss the present political, educational and economic status of the Polish people throughout the world.

Agreeing with Canada on the Tariff

As a result of the conference between President Taft and Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada, and Mr. W. S. Fielding, Canadian Minister of Finance, held at Albany on March 30, the United States and Canada have practically agreed to open negotiations for the drafting of a reciprocity treaty. The Dominion Government, through its Finance Minister, has granted to the United States its intermediate tariff rates,—that is, the rates between the "best terms" granted to the mother country and the maximum duties imposed on the goods of nations that discriminate against the Dominion. These intermediate rates cover forty articles, in which the trade amounts to about $5,000,000 annually. It is understood that the United States Government has accepted the view of the Canadian authorities that the control of pulpwood areas is a matter for the provinces alone to deal with. On this point in the negotiations Canadians claim a victory. It is a significant fact that a few days after the publication of the American concessions on this point an announcement was made that the government of the Province of Quebec will shortly issue "a strict prohibition of the export of pulp wood" to the United States. A dispatch from Ottawa, dated early in April, stated that the conference between the American and Canadian Commissioners would probably be held early in the present month at Washington. An important announcement made in one of the French newspapers of Montreal several weeks ago was to the effect that Mr. R. L. Borden, leader of the Conservatives, discouraged by his inability to hold the party together, is about to retire from political life, and that he will be succeeded in the leadership of the opposition by Sir Thomas Shaughnessy, now president of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Latin-America in 1910

In Latin-American history the year 1910 will be a memorable one. Elsewhere in this issue we point out the significance of the series of centennial celebrations that during the coming summer are to mark the attainment of the first century of independence by most of the South and Central American nations and

Mexico. The contrast between the South America of 1810 and the awakened continent of the present year is also set forth by Dr. Albert Hale on another page. The fourth Pan-American Congress will assemble during July and August in Buenos Aires, the Argentine capital. The delegation from the United States is composed of eminent diplomats and an efficient secretarial force of such a personnel as cannot fail to impress the South American people with the earnest desire of the government and people of the United States to express for them the warmest fraternal cordiality. The delegation expects to start for Buenos Aires early next month.

Peru's Quarrel with Ecuador

Boundary disputes have often, during the past three decades, threatened to plunge the South American nations into war. For nearly a year Bolivia and Peru have been at odds over the question of undecided frontiers. For several weeks last month there seemed to be real danger of an actual armed conflict between Peru on one side and Ecuador, Colombia, and Chile on the other. It is almost a full century since Peru and Ecuador began to dispute the ownership of a vast section of the interior, the region about the head waters of the Amazon, which appears on most maps as belonging to Ecuador, but to which during recent years Peru has laid strenuous claim, enforcing her pretensions by quartering forces of armed men in the disputed region. A year or so ago the matter was submitted to the King of Spain for arbitration. After long and arduous search among the archives of Madrid and Seville, King Alfonso, as we gather from the somewhat meager reports of his verdict, has decided in favor of Peru. Ecuador, following the examples of Bolivia in her boundary dispute with Peru, refused to abide by the result of the arbitration. Chile, it will be remembered, also has a chronic quarrel with Peru over the provinces of Tacna and Arica, which were left in the temporary possession of Chile by the treaty which terminated the war of 1879 between the two countries.

Danger of Involving Other Nations

What is now Colombia and Ecuador made up the region formerly known as the vice-royalty of New Granada, a Spanish governmental designation of the northwestern part of South America in colonial times. Colombia's territorial claims against Ecuador have recently been adjusted. Now Peru insists that the territory ceded by Ecuador to Colombia is only one-half of the land which Ecuador rightly owes to Peru. Late in March anti-Peruvian demonstrations took place in Colombia, Ecuador, and Chile, and Peruvian legations and consular offices in these countries were attacked and in some cases destroyed. Popular passions were aroused almost to the war point in all four of the republics concerned. The governments at Lima, Quito, Bogotá, and Santiago, however, have acted with diplomatic correctness, and as we are going to press with this issue of the REVIEW the chances are that the differences will be settled without resort to arms. It would be a most unfortunate thing if the year marking the first century of independence in South America should be marked by the outbreak of hostilities.

The Election in Brazil

Early in March newspaper dispatches from Brazil, through a responsible London source, informed us that at a general election held in that country the month before Marshal Hermes Fonseca had been elected president of the republic by a large majority vote. More accurate and detailed information from Rio de Janeiro indicates that the figures then reported were based upon incomplete returns. Later dispatches show a very close vote for Marshal Fonseca and Dr. Barboza. The election is being contested and the results will be decided by the Brazilian Congress in its annual session, which begins on the third day of the present month. The campaign was a very heated one, and popular feeling ran high. Many charges of fraud were made. The main policies upon which the people were asked to decide were known as "civilism" and "militarism," Marshal Fonseca standing for the extension of armaments and Dr. Barboza representing opposition to this idea, or the "civilism" issue. Dr. Barboza was chosen by the first nominating convention ever called in Brazil. Marshal Fonseca, on the other hand, a soldier by profession and ex-minister of war, was nominated by the political leaders, whose close association is termed by their opponents a corrupt political machine.

Progress of Caribbean Countries

From all the shores of the Caribbean Sea come reports of orderly progress and peace. President Gomez, of Venezuela, in his annual message to the Congress of the republic on April 19,

eloquently set forth the progress made by the Venezuelan people during the century of their independence. At present, he announced, the relations of Venezuela with most of the foreign powers "are excellent." With the United States, Germany, Italy, Brazil, and Colombia, Venezuelan relations are "on the most friendly footing." Only one dispute with the United States,—the claim of the Orinoco Shipping Company,—remains unsettled, and this has been referred to the Hague Tribunal. The fullest of diplomatic intercourse has not yet been resumed with France, Great Britain, and Holland, but, says Señor Gomez, "we are endeavoring by every honorable means to maintain harmonious relations with these countries." The Venezuelan Centennial Celebration began last month and will continue until the end of July. The Cuban Congress convened on April 4. The message of President Gomez recommended, among other things, the formation of a court to settle all labor disputes. On a recent trip through the island, President Gomez found, he announced, peaceful, prosperous conditions generally. Reports of excellent progress under Governor Colton come from Porto Rico. According to the *Canal Record,* the official publication at Panama, all the excavation contemplated in the original project for the Panama Canal has now been completed. The additional depth subsequently agreed upon to accommodate naval Dreadnoughts and the new giant liners is all that now remains to be provided for. In peaceful, prosperous little Costa Rica, at the election held early last month, Dr. Ricardo Jiminez was elected President of the republic for the term of 1910-14. Even from oppressed, war-torn Nicaragua come more and more frequent reports of order being established and of the return of the people to their peaceful pursuits.

The Political Situation in England

Out of a very much involved party situation in England existing for weeks has come a strong probability, amounting almost to a certainty as we go to press with this issue of the REVIEW, that, before the end of the present summer, there will be another general election in Great Britain. Then the voters will be asked to express their opinions on the two separate, clearly defined issues of the veto power of the House of Lords and Home Rule for Ireland. During late March and all through the month of April both Houses of Parliament were discussing the question of reforming the Peers. Lord Rosebery's scheme for "regeneration by the Peers themselves" consists of three provisions: (1) That there must be an effective second chamber in Great Britain; (2) that such chamber must be formed from the present House of Lords; (3) that to such end the hereditary principle must be abandoned for one of selection according to merit and by popular choice. The resolutions embodying the first two of these provisions were passed immediately by the Lords, and the third, after much debate and consideration, was adopted on March 22. Premier Asquith's plan, in the form of three resolutions which were passed by the Commons on April 14, provides (1) that the Lords shall hereafter have nothing whatever to say about financial legislation; (2) that they shall have no power over any legislation except to compel deliberation, and that not beyond the life of a single Parliament; (3) that the life of Parliament shall be shortened from seven years to five.

TOO YOUNG TO DIE

THE PUP (an irreverent characterization of the present British Parliament): "Please do not cut me off with my life's work still undone."

MR. REDMOND: "Well, how long do you want for it?"

THE PUP: "About three months."

From *Punch* (London)

Reforming the House of Lords

The result of the adoption of Lord Rosebery's plan would be (1) to confirm the two-chamber system; (2) to maintain the co-ordinate power of the House of Lords; but (3) to make that house worthy to exercise power. The government proposals would (1) not confirm the two-chamber system, but (2) by implication would condemn it by greatly reducing its power and leaving it in its present unreformed state, which marks it as a very unpopular anachronism. The Liberals claim that the Upper House has always been a "Tory caucus,"—that is to say, that the Peers have always solidly supported the program of Conservative governments and invariably opposed the legislation of the Commons when a Liberal ministry was in power. Therefore the Liberals are not likely to approve any measure that would strengthen the House of Lords by improving its character, and it is a foregone conclusion that they would reject in the Commons Lord Rosebery's plan. On the other hand, the Unionists (Conservatives) among the Lords, who compose a great majority of the Upper House, would undoubtedly reject Mr. Asquith's scheme for minimizing their authority.

Appealing to King and People

It seemed certain last month that should the Lords reject the government's bill for their reformation Parliament would be dissolved, or else the Ministry would resign and compel its successors to dissolve Parliament. Then the question would be put squarely before the people. Of course, the Premier might ask the King to use his royal prerogative and create a sufficient number of Liberal Peers to insure the passage by the Lords of the government's measure. King Edward, however, is not at all likely to accede to such a suggestion, if made, until the popular voice has been heard. If the vote of the country is opposed to the Lords, the Peers themselves may bow to the inevitable. If, however, an appeal be taken to the country and the popular verdict does not sustain Mr. Asquith we may expect to see the House of Lords not only reformed according to its own plans but greatly strengthened and the principle of a real, modern two-chamber Parliament confirmed.

Mr. Redmond in Control

Mr. John Redmond's control of the Parliamentary situation became firmer early last month, and it was generally conceded that only by a compromise with the Irish leader and the main body of the Nationalists had Mr. Asquith been enabled to secure the necessary support for forcing through the budget. Mr. Redmond's ultimatum was to the effect that much as the Irish disliked the budget, they would consent to give their votes to its passage during the latter part of April, provided the Prime Minister would announce that, in the event of the rejection of the veto resolutions by the House of Lords, the government would ask for an immediate appeal to the country and that he had the royal promise to deal with the Lords as the popular vote might demand. Then with a definite Liberal promise before them and a hostile House of Lords out of the way, the Irish party would demand and insist upon the passage of the Home Rule bill.

BETWEEN TWO "DRAFTS"

LORD HELPUS (hereditary legislator): "Heavens, between these two 'drafts' I'll catch my death, as sure as fate!"

From *Reynolds' Newspaper* (London)

The Premier's Declaration

The Premier responded by making in the Commons on April 14 a frank but guarded statement setting forth the intentions of the government, in which it is generally conceded he again showed his mastery of

parliamentary *finesse*. Replying to Mr. Redmond's declaration as to the price of Irish support in Parliament, Mr. Asquith stated in effect that, while it was not usual for a government to make a statement of policy regarding contingencies that had not yet arisen, in the present unique state of things he was willing to announce the following:

> If the Lords fail to accept our policy or decline to consider it when it is formally presented to them we shall immediately tender advice to the Crown as to the steps which will have to be taken if that policy is to receive statutory effect. What the precise terms of that advice will be is, of course, not right for me to say now, but if we do not find ourselves in a position to insure statutory effect being given to our policy we shall either resign or recommend the dissolution of Parliament. In no case could we recommend dissolution except under conditions assuring us that in the new Parliament the judgment of the people as expressed at an election will be enacted into law.

O'Brien vs. Redmond

Whether or not all the Irish members of the Commons will hold together long enough to keep Mr. Asquith to his promises remains to be seen. Mr. Redmond's leadership has been challenged during the past few weeks by that most Irish of Irish leaders, William J. O'Brien. Mr. O'Brien's ten independent votes which the Redmond faction has heretofore regarded as a negligible quantity are now seen to stand for much more than their numerical strength. While continuing to condemn the budget and Redmond's support of it, Mr. O'Brien has now demanded that Mr. Redmond use his balance of power to secure concessions for Ireland in the budget and to "cease his silly attempt to dictate the entire policy of the Imperial Government." In this demand, according to the latest cable dispatches, Mr. O'Brien is backed by that mysterious but powerful Irish organization, the Sinn Fein, and by the All-for-Ireland League, a society founded by Mr. O'Brien and his followers at Dublin in March. It is not possible to predict what effect this stand of the O'Brienites will have upon Mr. Redmond's power or Mr. Asquith's necessity for agreeing with him. It is a significant fact, however, that the purposes and methods of all these opponents of Mr. Redmond among his own countrymen are directed away from politics and toward the development of Irish character, Ireland's natural resources, and Irish commercial interests. At present there is no doubt of Mr. Redmond's control at Westminster.

WM. J. O'BRIEN, THE IRISH LEADER

(Who opposes Mr. Redmond's policies and tactics)

The Coming Election in France

Before this issue of the REVIEW reaches its readers there will have been held a general parliamentary election in France. The electoral campaign began early last month, and was conducted chiefly on the record of the Briand ministry in matters of labor legislation and over the issue of the scandals in the "liquidation" of the affairs of the religious congregations which have been expropriated by the state. The record of the parliament just closed is an excellent one. In the face of bitter opposition and with more than one very delicate problem to solve it is creditable in a high degree that the Briand Parliament has made such a record in legislative efficiency and governmental stability. Late in the session the Senate by a large majority passed the Workmen's Pension bill, which will affect some 17,000,000 persons throughout the republic. The plan involves contributions from the wage-earners themselves, from the employers, and from the state. Both Houses of the Parliament on March 29 passed a bill approving the Franco-American tariff agreement. American artists made an unusually good showing at the Paris Salon last month, "receiving as much admiration as the work of the French themselves."

The Situation in Liberia and the Congo

The report of the three commissioners to Liberia transmitted by President Taft to Congress on March 25 makes the following suggestions to improve the situation in the African republic:

(1) That the United States extend its aid to Liberia in the prompt settlement of pending boundary disputes; (2) that the United States enable Liberia to refund its debt by assuming as a guarantee for the payment of obligations under such arrangement the control and collection of the Liberian customs; (3) that the United States lend its assistance to the Liberian Government in the reform of its internal finances; (4) that the United States lend its aid to Liberia in organizing and drilling an adequate constabulary or frontier police force; (5) that the United States establish and maintain a research station in Liberia; (6) that the United States reopen the question of establishing a naval coaling station in Liberia.

Secretary Knox's plan for the solution of the difficulties in the little African republic contemplates a treaty to embody the recommendations of the commission. The people of Liberia, the commissioners report, have made considerable advance in civilization since the founding of the republic. Their task of government is difficult principally because of the partition of Africa by European powers. News from Monrovia, the Liberian capital, indicates that business and government in the country are at a standstill pending the action of the United States Congress on the report of the commission. In the heart of the continent a bright future faces the vast Congo region. The reforms initiated by the Belgian Minister of Colonies and recently approved by King Albert will go into effect on July 1. These reforms include a reduction in taxes (hereafter to be collected in money, not in labor), the substitution of native for white officials, the restriction of obligatory labor on the part of the natives to works for the improvement of their own conditions, and the suppression of polygamy.

A Labor Government for Australia

For the third time in its history the Commonwealth of Australia has found itself under control of a Labor Government. By the elections held throughout the Commonwealth on April 13 the Federal labor party received working majorities in both houses. The immediate causes of the defeat of the Deakin coalition ministry were the great coal miners' strike, in which the government was believed to be favorable to the employers; the large vote of the women, who are enfranchised in Australia and who are labor sympathizers, and the fact that the labor party is homogeneous, while the other two political groups are disrupted by factional quarrels. Almost continuously since the Federation was established in 1900 the Parliament has had three political parties in the field, with the Laborites holding the balance of power. To-day finds a labor party numerically stronger than the other two combined. The Australian people generally are interested in national defense and in "a White Australia," meaning the exclusion of Asiatic labor from the continent. Both of these policies are tenets of the labor creed.

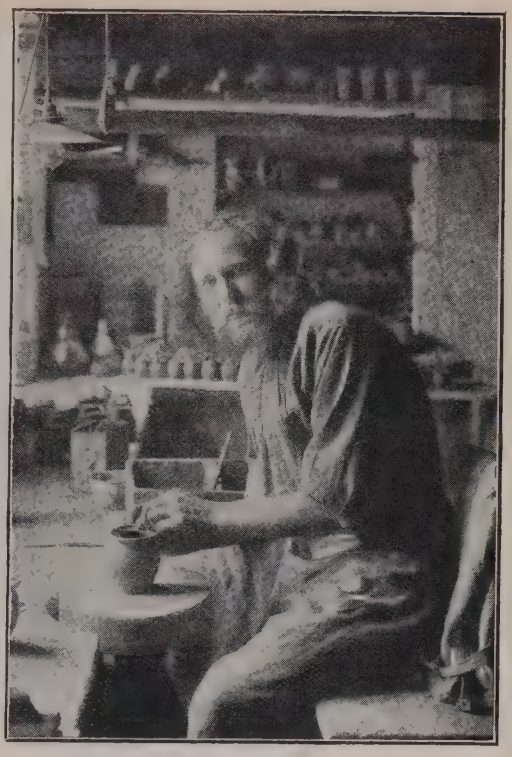
International Religious Gatherings

A number of important international religious events will mark the summer of 1910. First among these will be the National Congress of the Laymen's Missionary Movement, to be held on the 3d of the present month at Chicago, to discuss plans for "the evangelization of the world." It is estimated that more than 4500 men will attend this congress, coming from every State in the Union. Delegates will be there appointed to the international gathering to be held in June in Edinburgh. Every Protestant denomination, it is expected, will be represented in both these gatherings, and the officials of the Laymen's Missionary Movement assure us that the men and the money necessary for the accomplishment of this tremendous work will be forthcoming when needed. A World's Missionary Congress will be held in Edinburgh, Scotland, from June 14-24. Another religious gathering of universal scope showing the progress made in the direction of a union of the religious forces of civilization will be held in Berlin early in August. It calls itself the World Congress of Free Christianity and Religious Progress. Twelve different religious denominations, including, besides the Orthodox, Catholic, and Protestant sects, Unitarians, Universalists, Jews, Ethical Culturists, and Quakers, will be represented. Other religious gatherings of the year are noted in our annual list of conventions, celebrations, and expositions which we give on another page this month.

The Passion Play

This is the year also of the production of the Passion Play at Oberammergau. The quaint little Bavarian hamlet will again give representations of the Passion Play on the

stage of its great open-air theater, and all the world will send its quota of the devout and curious to look on. The first presentation will be on the 16th of the present month and the last on September 25. There will not be many changes in the principal characters this year, the part of the Christ being taken again by Anton Lang. Most of the other parts will be taken by the same actors who performed in 1900, with the exception of the Virgin Mary. It is the tradition of the village that the Virgin must be represented by a woman between twenty and thirty years of age, and therefore the part is never played twice by the same person. Ottilie Zwink will be the Virgin of 1910. Many Americans will witness this representation during the coming summer and have their devotional feelings stimulated and their religious sense quickened by the solemn dignity of the drama there represented.



ANTON LANG, WHO REPRESENTS THE CHRIST THIS YEAR IN THE PASSION PLAY AT OBERAMMERGAU

Europe's Ovation to Mr. Roosevelt

There was nothing in the reception accorded to Colonel Roosevelt at Naples, when he landed early in the morning of April 2, to suggest the stirring, almost sensational developments that marked the later stages of his European tour. His dominating personality had been displayed in the strongest of lights during his trip down the Nile. It was shown particularly by his vigorous speech at Cairo University on March 28, when he told the Egyptian Nationalists that they were not fit for self-government. The ex-President also put new heart into the English both in the Soudan and in Egypt by his expressions appreciative of their great achievements in providing stability in the government and order for the people. He delighted the Catholic missionaries by the aid he rendered the Franciscan sisters and the Protestants by his visits to the various missions. He avoided any real offense to the Mohammedans by preaching the doctrine of religious toleration. He left Alexandria the most talked of man in Egypt. Probably the most noticeable feature of his arrival at Naples, en route for Rome, was the presence of dozens of newspaper correspondents from the United States and all the countries of Europe. A majority of these writers expect to continue with the ex-President until he sails for the United States.

Rome Receives Him Cordially

At the Italian capital King Victor Emmanuel and Queen Elena treated him and his family as dear, personal friends. It is reported that he discussed with the King the immigration question, particularly in its relation to Italian economic conditions. The Mayor of Rome, Signor Nathan, presided at the municipal dinner given in Mr. Roosevelt's honor, and in his speech, recounting Italy's progress in the arts and industries of modern life, he called the ex-President to witness that the Italian capital is a living, modern city, and no longer to be regarded as a museum of archaeology maintained for the benefit of foreign tourists. Later Mr. Roosevelt gave a luncheon, in honor of the new Italian premier, Signor Luzzati, who is an authority on philosophy and social and political economy, and Professor Ferrero, the eminent historian, with whom he discussed incidents in Roman history, showing a remarkable knowledge of the policies of the rulers of the old empire.

Northern Italy Enthusiastic

Although the ex-President had expressed the desire that he should be permitted to escape public attention and to travel with Mrs. Roosevelt like a private citizen over the same

route on the Italian Riviera which was followed during their honeymoon, his wish was not complied with. Descriptions of his daily movements and actions were given to the world very fully and he was received by enthusiastic crowds wherever he went. At the little town of Porto Maurizio in northern Italy the municipal council conferred upon him the privilege of citizenship, and named a street *Via Theodore Roosevelt*. At Porto Maurizio he lunched with Signor Fogazzaro, the author of "The Saint," and other books of a "Modernist" tendency, which some years ago caused a good deal of discussion, and had a long private conversation with Mr. Gifford Pinchot, the ex-Chief Forester of the Agricultural Department, who had come to Europe to see the ex-President.

Photograph by Paul Thompson

READING MESSAGES OF THANKS FROM THE EGYPTIANS

(Mr. Roosevelt receiving telegrams on his departure from Alexandria)

Audience with The Emperor of Austria

The morning of April 13 found Colonel Roosevelt and his son Kermit en route for Vienna, the next principal point in their itinerary. At Milan and Genoa they were enthusiastically received, and at Venice, where a longer stay was made, the ex-President made an extended trip through the canals. At Vienna Colonel Roosevelt had a private audience with the Emperor Francis Joseph of more than an hour's length and a long conference with Baron von Aerenthal, Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Generous Enthusiasm of Budapest

Hungary received the ex-President with open arms. Popular enthusiasm exceeded anything since the days of Louis Kossuth. In fact, the journey after Colonel Roosevelt had left the train at Pressburg on April 17 to visit Count Apponyi, the Hungarian statesman, whom he had entertained at Washington and Oyster Bay, assumed almost the character of a triumphal procession. The entire population of the Hungarian capital turned out and the Mayor and other city authorities received the ex-President at the railway station. They welcomed him with shouts of enthusiasm, acclaiming him as the world apostle of liberty and peace. Amid increasing popular acclaim Budapest was reached and Mr. Roosevelt was almost mobbed at the station, which, in spite of a heavy downpour of rain, was surrounded by thousands of cheering Hungarians. The Mayor of the ancient Hungarian capital and representatives from all the societies of the city met him on the station platform, and while nearly 1000 university students sang, in English, the "Star-Spangled Banner," the ex-President was whisked away to his hotel through almost solid walls of the populace. In short, the Hungarians were evidently determined to show Mr. Roosevelt that he had touched their hearts, and they gave him a welcome surpassing anything he had experienced during his tour. Replying to speeches of welcome by Francis Kossuth, son of the famous patriot, Louis Kossuth, the Archduke Joseph and Count Khuen von Hedervary, the Premier, Mr. Roosevelt told how long he had admired and loved Hungary, complimenting the character and good qualities of the Hungarian people. On April 19 the ex-President left for Paris.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From March 21 to April 20, 1910)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

March 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Elkins (Rep., W. Va.) speaks in defense of the Interstate Commerce measure.

March 22.—In the Senate, Mr. Clapp (Rep., Minn.) criticises the administration's Interstate Commerce bill.

March 23.—The Senate passes the bill relating to the control of seal islands in Bering Sea.... The House passes bills providing for the raising of the *Maine* and punishing discrimination against the United States uniform.

March 24.—The Senate passes the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation bill.... The House passes the Pension Appropriation bill.

March 26.—In the House, debate on the Naval Appropriation bill is begun.

March 29.—The House adopts a resolution providing for an investigation of the alleged ship-subsidies lobby.

March 31.—In the House, Mr. Sherley (Dem., Ky.) presents a resolution proposing important changes in the rules.

April 1.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) concludes a three-days speech in support of the administration's attempt to strengthen the Interstate Commerce law; the bill amending the Employers' Liability law is passed....The House votes an appropriation of $25,000 for the classification of corporation tax returns.

April 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.), chairman of the committee investigating the increased cost of living, introduces a bill limiting the cold storage of food to one year.

April 8.—The House passes the Naval Appropriation bill ($128,037,602), authorizing the construction of two first-class battleships.

April 11.—The Senate begins consideration of the Railroad bill; Mr. Nelson (Rep., Minn.) declares that in his opinion the measure would destroy the Sherman Anti-Trust law....The House strikes out from the Legislative Appropriation bill the conference committee's provision for the maintenance of the Speaker's automobile.

April 12.—In the Senate, Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) attacks the administration's Railroad bill and Attorney-General Wickersham's course in the merger of the New Haven and Boston & Maine railroads....In the House, Mr. Mann (Rep., Ill.) explains the administration's Railroad bill.

April 14.—The Senate adopts an amendment to the Interstate Commerce bill exempting carriers by water from the operation of the measure....The House asks the President for facts in connection with Sugar Trust frauds in the customs service, unless he should think that the publication of same would be incompatible with public interests.

April 15.—The Senate considers the Rivers and Harbors Appropriation bill, Mr. Burton (Rep., Ohio) speaking in opposition.

April 18.—The House passes the McCall Campaign Publicity bill and the bill relating to the Pribylov seal islands.

April 19.—The Senate passes the River and Harbor bill ($52,000,000)....The House discusses the Railroad bill.

April 20.—The House passes a conservation bill authorizing the President to make withdrawals of public lands.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

March 21.—The National Packing Company and ten subsidiary concerns are indicted by a federal grand jury in Chicago for violations of the Sherman Anti-Trust law....Forty present and former members of the Pittsburg councils are indicted for bribery; ten others confess when immunity is offered.

March 22.—In a special election to choose a successor to the late Congressman Lovering, the Democrats carry by a plurality of 5640 one of the strongest Republican districts in Massachusetts, Eugene N. Foss defeating William R. Buchanan....Nine more former Pittsburg councilmen confess to bribe-taking while in office.

March 23.—At a caucus of the Republican members of the House of Representatives, Messrs. Smith, of Iowa; Dalzell, of Pennsylvania; Lawrence, of Massachusetts; Fassett, of New York; Smith, of California, and Boutell, of Illinois, are chosen as Republican members of the new Committee on Rules.

March 24.—The Democratic members of the House, in caucus, elect Messrs. Clark, of Missouri; Underwood, of Alabama; Fitzgerald, of New York, and Dixon, of Indiana, as minority members of the new Rules Committee....As a result of the graft exposures in Pittsburg a movement is started to adopt the commission form of government....Constitutional lawyers, including Senator Root, state that in their opinion at least one of the attempts of the Kentucky Legislature to adopt the income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution was legal.

March 25.—Disclosures in the Pittsburg graft investigation result in thirty-one new indictments and involve six banks.

March 28.—The President appoints Maurice H. Thatcher, of Kentucky, to be a member of the Isthmian Canal Commission.

March 29.—The New York Senate, by vote of forty to nine, and after an investigation lasting nearly two months, sustains the bribery charge against Jotham P. Allds, who resigned just before the vote was taken....The Mississippi

Legislature approves the income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution.

April 2.—The Maryland Legislature passes a bill disfranchising negroes in State and municipal elections, basing its action on the fact that the State of Maryland did not adopt the Fifteenth Amendment.

April 4.—The Maryland Senate passes the bill creating a public utilities commission, with supervision over all public service corporations, and endorses the income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution, completing the ratification by that State....The Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the Nebraska law requiring railroads to build switches to grain elevators and the Arkansas law penalizing railroads for failure to supply sufficient cars....Benn Conger, who preferred the bribery charge against Allds, resigns from the New York Senate; his part in the transaction was about to be investigated.

April 5.—Emil Seidel, candidate of the Social Democrats, is elected Mayor of Milwaukee.... The platform of the Indiana Republican convention indorses the administration of President Taft, but ignores the Payne-Aldrch tariff.

April 6.—Frank N. Hoffstot, president of the Pressed Steel Car Company, is indicted in the Pittsburg investigation.

April 8.—Governor Crothers, of Maryland, announces that he will veto the Negro Disfranchisement bill.

April 9.—Attorney-General Wickersham, speaking at Chicago, reviews the first year of the Taft administration and defends its policies ....Treasury receipts show a surplus over expenditures for the first time under the new tariff.

April 11.—The Supreme Court decides that the Standard Oil and Tobacco Trust cases shall be reargued....Governor Hughes, in a message to the New York Legislature, urges a thorough inquiry into legislative corruption.

April 14.—The New York State Senate passes a resolution demanding a thorough investigation into legislative corruption.

April 15.—Mayor Gaynor, of New York City, explains to the police his plan of enforcing the excise law on Sundays; violators are not to be arrested, but are to be reported by affidavit to the District Attorney.

April 19.—James S. Havens (Dem.) is elected to Congress from the Thirty-second New York District by a majority of 5831, succeeding the late James Breck Perkins; the district is strongly Republican, and the result is considered a personal defeat for George W. Aldridge, the Republican candidate and "boss."....Senators Aldrich, of Rhode Island, and Hale, of Maine, announce that they will not be candidates for re-election.

April 20.—By a non-partisan vote in the New York Assembly the income-tax amendment fails of passage.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

March 21.—Premier Asquith places before the House of Commons a series of resolutions limiting the veto power of the Lords....The Hungarian premier and members of his cabinet are injured by missiles thrown by Magyar deputies following the announcement that the chamber had been dissolved by royal decree....The Sonnino cabinet in Italy resigns owing to its inability to carry through the government's merchant marine measure....Alexander Gutchov (Octobrist) is elected president of the Russian Duma.

March 22.—The French Senate passes the Workmen's Pension bill; the Chamber of Deputies passes a measure requiring liquidators of church property to furnish detailed accounts....The British House of Lords passes the third of Lord Rosebery's reform resolutions, stating that possession of a peerage should no longer of itself entitle one to membership in the Upper House.

March 25.—The French Senate concurs with the Chamber in adopting the Tariff bill.

March 28.—The Prince of Monaco grants the demands of his subjects for a parliament.

March 29.—Both houses of the French Parliament approve the tariff agreement with the United States.

March 30.—The Canadian Minister of Finance explains before the Dominion Parliament the tariff negotiations with the United States, stating that some important concessions had been made by Canada in order to continue friendly relations....Luigi Luzzatti forms a coalition ministry in Italy....King George of Greece convokes the new national assembly.

April 3.—The "Mad Mullah" of Somaliland and his followers have slaughtered 800 tribesmen in the sultanates under British protection.

April 5.—Ricardo Jiminez is again elected president of Costa Rica, the election of August last having been annulled.

April 6.—Turkish troops are sent into Albania, where a tax revolt has broken out.

April 7.—The British House of Commons adopts the first of Premer Asquith's veto resolutions by vote of 339 to 237.

April 8.—The French Parliament elected in 1906 comes to an end; elections will be held on April 24 and the new Parliament will assemble on June 1.

April 10.—A suffrage-reform demonstration by over 100,000 Socialists and Radicals is peaceably conducted in a suburb of Berlin.

April 11.—The Belgian plans for reform in the Congo include reduction in taxes and the substitution of native for white officials....The Turkish Government having agreed to consider their grievances, the Albanian insurgents disperse.

April 12.—The Prussian Diet again approves the government's suffrage measure.

April 13.—The Australian general election results in a victory for the Laborites over the Deakin coalition party....The details of the proposed unearned-increment tax in Germany are made public.

April 14.—The Spanish Parliament is dissolved; elections will be held in May and the new assembly will meet on June 15....Premier Asquith's resolutions dealing with the veto power of the House of Lords pass the Commons by majorities ranging from 105 to 111.

April 15.—Mr. Balfour, leader of the opposition in the British House of Commons, announces that he favors the free importation of wheat grown within the empire.

April 16.—President Gomez of Cuba announces three cabinet appointments, among them being that of a negro.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

March 21.—The Peruvian Government severs diplomatic relations with Chile, owing to the expulsion of Peruvian priests from Tacna and Arica....The visit of King Ferdinand of Bulgaria to the Sultan of Turkey is expected to improve the Balkan situation.

March 24.—President Taft signs a proclamation granting minimum tariff rates to China.

March 25.—Two American-owned steamers are seized by the Nicaraguan Government.

March 26.—President Taft and the Canadian Minister of Finance, in conference at Washington, reach an agreement in the tariff dispute.

March 30.—Proclamations granting minimum tariff rates to Canada and Australia are signed by President Taft, thereby completing the extension of minimum rates to the entire world.

March 31.—Venezuela pays $1030 for unlawfully detaining a British trading schooner in 1908.

April 1.—The Peruvian legation at Bogota, Colombia, is attacked by a mob in sympathy with Ecuador.

April 3.—The Peruvian legation and consulates in Ecuador are attacked by mobs.

April 5.—The trans-Andean tunnel, connecting Chile and Argentina by rail, is formally opened.

April 6.—The Spanish Government urges Peru and Ecuador to adopt conciliatory attitudes.

April 8.—It is intimated by the President of Ecuador that the United States will be asked to mediate into the Peruvian imbroglio.

April 14.—An anti-foreign uprising in Chang-Sha, China, results in the burning of one Norwegian and two English missions.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

March 21.—Forty-seven persons are killed in the wreck of a Rock Island passenger train near Green Mountain, Iowa....Mayor Gaynor, of New York City, orders that the police cease photographing prisoners except those actually convicted of felony.

March 22.—The general strike in Philadelphia is called off after the striking street-car employees refuse concessions offered; 30,000 union men return to work....Through the award of a federal arbitration board, appointed under the Erdman act, members of the Switchmen's Union of North America obtain an increase in wages.

March 23.—President Taft returns to Washington after a six-days absence....Stockholders of the Anaconda Copper Company vote to increase the capital stock fivefold.

March 24.—Ex-President Roosevelt and his family arrive at Cairo....Through the efforts of Commissioner of Labor Neill, an agreement is reached between the Western railroads and striking firemen; the question of wages is left for arbitration under the Erdman act.

March 27.—Eight men are killed and three injured by the explosion of a gun on the cruiser *Charleston* in the Philippines.

March 28.—In the course of an address to the students of the University of Egypt, ex-President Roosevelt causes a sensation by commending British rule and denouncing sympathizers with the recent assassination of Premier Boutros....The New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad grants an increase in wages and shorter hours to trainmen, conductors, and yardmen....More than 300 persons are killed by fire in a dance hall in Hungary....A hurricane causes serious damage in the Fiji Islands....Two aeroplanes are wrecked on the opening day of the Cannes (France) aviation meet.

March 29.—The Pennsylvania Railroad voluntarily grants a 6 per cent. increase in the pay of all employees earning less than $300 a month....15,000 employees in the mechanical departments of Canadian railways demand higher wages.

March 30.—The Philadelphia & Reading Railroad announces a wage increase of 6 per cent. to employees receiving less than $300 a month.

March 31.—Three hundred thousand bituminous coal miners quit work pending a settlement of wage demands....A tornado and a blizzard cause great damage to life and property in Austria.

April 2.—Hubert LeBlon is killed by a fall from his aeroplane at San Sebastian, Spain....The wireless station at Nauen, Prussia, maintains communication with Kamerun, in West Africa....Employees at Sir Christopher Furness' shipyard, in England, after a year's test, reject his profit-sharing plan....Dr. Eugene Doyen, of Paris, announces the discovery of mycolysine, a germ-destroying agent.

April 3.—Ex-President Roosevelt announces in Rome that he will not call on the Pope because of conditions which the Vatican wished to impose....Announcement is made of an advance in the wages of Bethlehem Steel laborers.

April 4.—Colonel Roosevelt and his family are guests of the King and Queen of Italy.

April 6.—The military court of inquiry into the Brownsville shooting affair affirms the guilt of the negro soldiers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry....The thirteenth Conference for Education in the South is opened at Little Rock, Ark.

April 7.—Glenn H. Curtiss, at Memphis, establishes a new aeroplane starting record, rising from the ground in five and four-fifths seconds.

April 8.—Daniel Kinet, a Belgian, carries a passenger in his aeroplane for two hours and twenty minutes, a new world's record....The New York City Board of Estimate authorizes $60,000,000 for subways.

April 10.—The Interstate Commerce Commission holds that upper berths in Pullman cars should cost less than lower berths.

April 11.—Gifford Pinchot, formerly Chief

Forester of the United States, confers with ex-President Roosevelt at Porto Maurizio, Italy.

April 12.—The offer of the New York Central Railroad to submit the demands of trainmen and conductors to a special arbitration board is accepted....The Fairbanks expedition announces that on April 3 it reached the summit of Mt. McKinley and that no trace was found of Dr. Cook's alleged ascent.

April 13.—Governor Patterson, of Tennessee, pardons Duncan B. Cooper, convicted of slaying ex-United States Senator Carmack in 1908; the State Supreme Court had just affirmed the conviction.

April 14.—The committee of street-car employees in Philadelphia accepts the terms offered by the traction company....The United States Steel Corporation announces an increase in pay for 225,000 men, amounting to $9,000,000 a year....A series of earthquakes in Costa Rica cause great damage to property.

April 15.—Emperor Francis-Joseph receives ex-President Roosevelt at Vienna....A lockout in the building trades in Germany affects nearly 200,000 men....A cyclone strikes the aviation field at Mourmelon, France, killing three workmen and wrecking nine aeroplanes.

April 16.—Lord Kitchener, British Field Marshal, visits the Military Academy at West Point.

April 17.—The Lackawanna Railroad informs its trainmen that it will abide by the decision of the New York Central arbitrators....A fire at Hyde Park, Vt., destroys municipal and county buildings and the Congregational Church.... The German balloon *Delitzsch* is struck by lightning near Eisenach; the crew of four men lose their lives.

April 18.—The Atlantic Transport liner *Minnehaha* runs aground off the Scilly Islands; the sixty-six passengers are landed in safety.

OBITUARY

March 20.—Felix Tournachon, the French journalist and caricaturist, 90.

March 21.—Rev. Theodore Bourne, founder of the Society for the Prevention of Crime, in New York, 88....George C. Lee, the Boston banker, 80....Creston Clarke, a well-known actor and dramatist, 44.

March 23.—Rear-Admiral James Entwistle, U.S.N., retired, 73.

March 24.—Galen Clark, for many years guardian of the Yosemite Valley, 96....Viscount Marie Eugene de Vogue, author and member of the French Academy, 62.

March 26.—Prof. J. Rayner Edmands, of the Harvard Observatory, 60.

March 27.—Alexander Agassiz, the scientist and mining engineer, 75....Dudley Evans, president of the Wells-Fargo Express Company, 72....David D. Wood, the blind composer and organist, 72....Brig.-Gen. Hamilton S. Hawkins, U.S.A., retired, 74....W. P. Roberts, the youngest brigadier-general of the Confederate army, 69.

March 28.—David Josiah Brewer, associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, 72....Levi Candee Weir, president of the Adams Express Company, 68.

March 29.—Ex-Judge John Swartout Barkalow, of New Jersey, 75....Thomas Lafayette Rosser, a Confederate veteran and a brigadier-general of volunteers during the war with Spain, 73.

March 30.—Charles Sprague Smith, founder and director of the People's Institute of New York, 56....Prof. George L. Vose, well known in New England as a civil engineer and educator, 56....Myra Kelly (Mrs. Allan Macnaughton), author of stories about school children in the New York slums....Brig-Gen. John Luke Tiernon, U. S. A., retired, 69....Jean Moreas, a French newspaper editor and poet, 54.

March 31.—S. Ward Loper, curator of Wesleyan University Museum, 75....Henry H. Porter, a prominent Western railroad man, 57.

April 1.—Robert W. Patterson, editor of the Chicago *Tribune*, 59....Borden Parker Bowne, professor of philosophy at Boston University, 63....Dr. J. P. C. Foster, of Connecticut, an authority on the treatment of tuberculosis, 65.

April 2.—Ex-Congressman Warren O. Arnold, of Rhode Island, 70....Ex-Justice Edgar L. Fursman, of the New York Supreme Court, 71....Thomas B. Jeffery, inventor of the pneumatic tire, 65.

April 3.—Brig.-Gen. Elias Van Arsdale Andruss, U.S.A., retired, 71....Rev. Thomas Law, a prominent Methodist minister of Great Britain, 56....Catherine Helen Spence, of Australia, lecturer and writer on electoral reform.

April 4.—George H. Williams, ex-United States Senator and Attorney-General during President Grant's second term, 87.

April 5.—Dr. Charles O. Day, formerly president of Andover Theological Seminary.

April 6.—Rev. Thomas Henry Sill, a prominent Episcopal minister of New York, 72.

April 8.—Thomas F. Walsh, the Colorado mine owner, 59....Dr. Andrew Heermance Smith, the well-known New York physician, 73.

April 10.—James T. Woodward, president of the Hanover National Bank of New York, 70.

April 11.—Sir Thomas Selby Tancred, the English mining and railway engineer, 70.

April 12.—William Graham Sumner, for many years professor of political and social science at Yale University, 69....Sir Robert Giffen, the English statistician, 73.

April 13.—Sir William Quiller Orchardson, the well-known painter, 75....Julius Blüthner, the German piano manufacturer, 86.

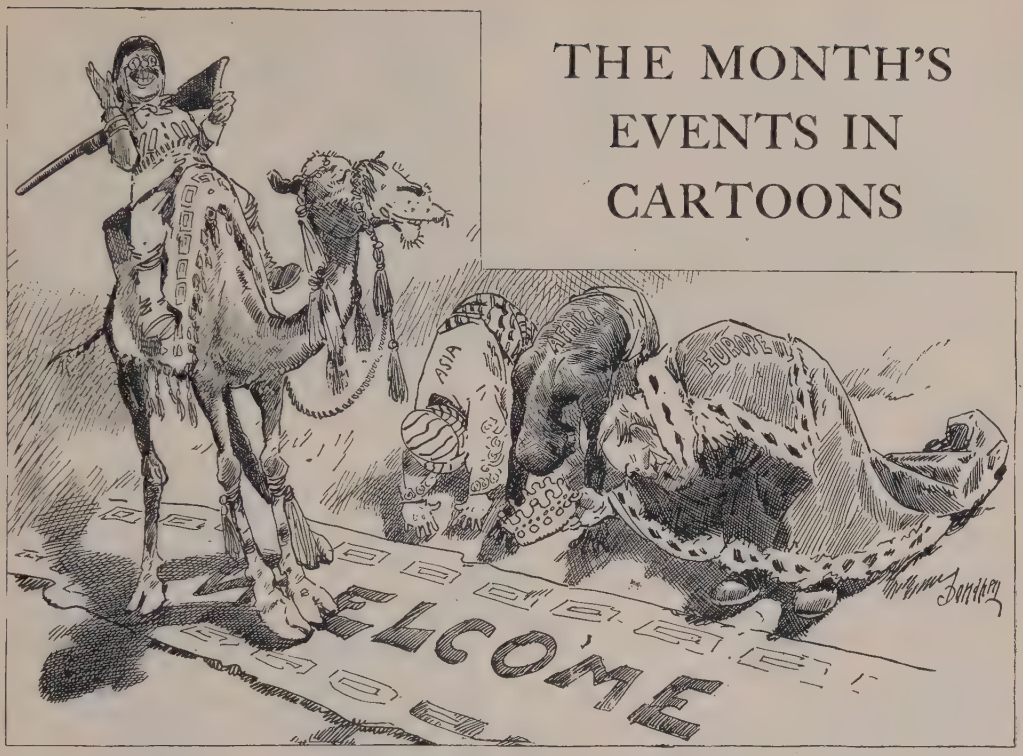
April 16.—Ignacio Mariscal, for thirty years head of the Mexican department of foreign affairs.

April 17.—Charles Donohue, ex-Justice of the New York Supreme Court, 86....A. J. Halford, editor of the Congressional Directory, 49.

April 18.—Dr. Bigelow T. Sanborn, an expert on diseases of the brain, 71....Charles J. Osborn, for half a century correspondent of the Associated Press at St. Louis, 84.

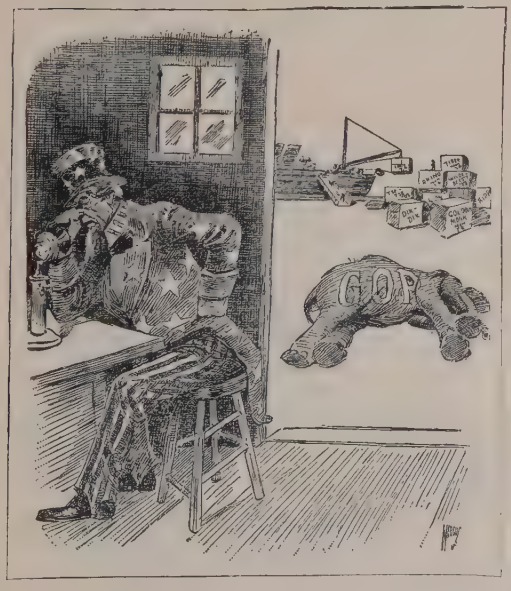
April 20.—Major-Gen. Samuel Gibbs French, of the Confederate army, 92.

THE MONTH'S EVENTS IN CARTOONS



"TALK ABOUT BEING PRESIDENT!"

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



TO A FAUNAL NATURALIST

UNCLE SAM: "Hello, Teddy; what we need is a live elephant, not dead ones."

From the *Times* (New York)

Colonel Roosevelt's progress through European countries, after emerging from the African wilderness, rapidly developed into a remarkable triumphal tour. Everywhere the American ex-President received the most enthusiastic greetings from sovereigns as well as from the people. Our readers will no doubt be interested in the article on "The Home-coming of Roosevelt" (page 555), by Mr. Walter Wellman, who went to meet Colonel Roosevelt in Africa, and has since accompanied him on his travels.

THE COMING GUEST

THE KAISER: "You boys will have to eat in the kitchen, I'm going to have company."

From the *Herald* (Syracuse)

MR. TAFT SHOULD KNOW THAT IT'S DANGEROUS TO WAVE A RED FLAG IN FRONT OF A BULL

From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)

THE PRESIDENTIAL TREADMILL

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)

THE PAINTING, IN MR. TAFT'S OPINION, DOES NOT DO JUSTICE TO THE HEROIC MODEL. NO WONDER HE KICKS!

From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

SOME CENSUS QUESTIONS
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

BROTHER TEDDY'LL GIT HIM!
PINCHOT (to Taft, before leaving for Europe): "I'm a-goin' ter tell my big brother on you."
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

EXIT! GEORGE W. ALDRIDGE
From the *World* (New York)

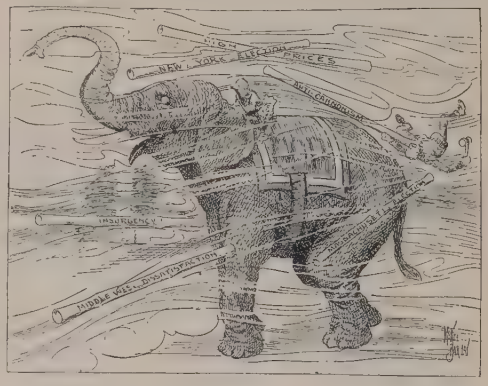
THREE'S A CROWD
(Apropos of recent woman's suffrage meetings in Washington)
From the *Press* (New York)

Few Congressional elections in recent years have aroused such intense interest throughout the country as the special district elections held last month in Massachusetts and New York. Eugene N. Foss, Democrat, carried one of the strongest Republican districts of Massachusetts against his Republican opponent. In New York also there was a Democratic victory, George W. Aldridge, Republican, and for many years the boss of Monroe County,—another Republican stronghold,—being signally defeated.

MY! WHAT A BUMP FOR FOSS'S OPPONENT!
From the *Traveler* (Boston)

THE REPUBLICAN TUG OF WAR: INSURGENTS vs. THE OLD GUARD!
Will the Republican elephant hold together?
From the *American* (New York)

THE INSURGENT BARBER (having finished with Speaker Cannon) to Senator Aldrich: "I'll trim you next, sir!"
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

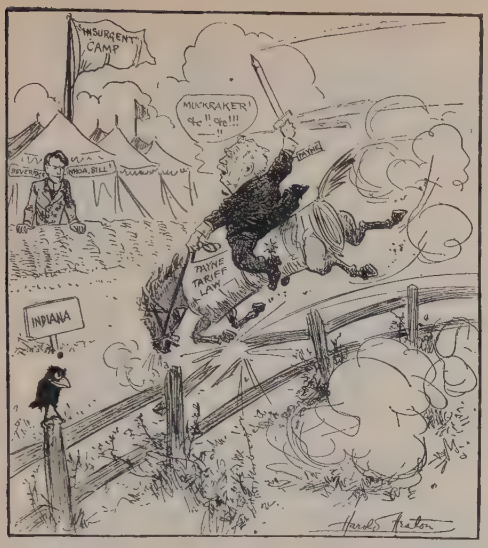


STRAWS SHOW WHICH WAY THE POLITICAL WIND BLOWS
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

RESPONSIBILITY WITHOUT POWER
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

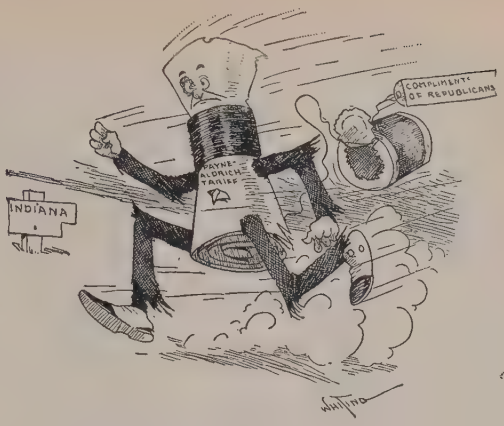
MR. SPEAKER
From the *World* (New York)

TWO CARTOONS ON THE CHANGES IN THE RULES OF THE HOUSE

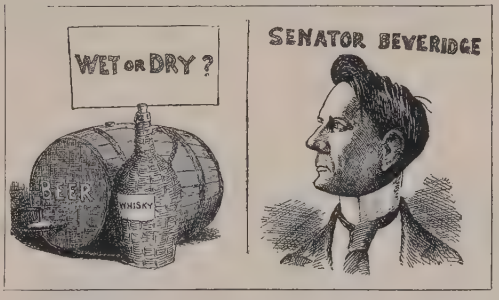


THE MAKERS OF THE TARIFF GO BUSHWHACKING IN INDIANA
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

Senator Beveridge's speech at the Indiana State Republican Convention last month, in which he attacked the Payne-Aldrich tariff, attracted marked attention throughout the country. The Senator's manly fight for re-election will be watched with much interest.



THE FUGITIVE: "That is no place for me!"
From the *Tribune* (South Bend, Ind.)



"BEVERAGES" ARE THE ISSUES IN INDIANA
From the *Times-Star* (Cincinnati)

"WELL, WHAT DO YOU THINK OF INDIANA?"
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta)

BEVERIDGE, AS THE HOOSIER SCHOOLMASTER
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

GETTING INTO THE GAME
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

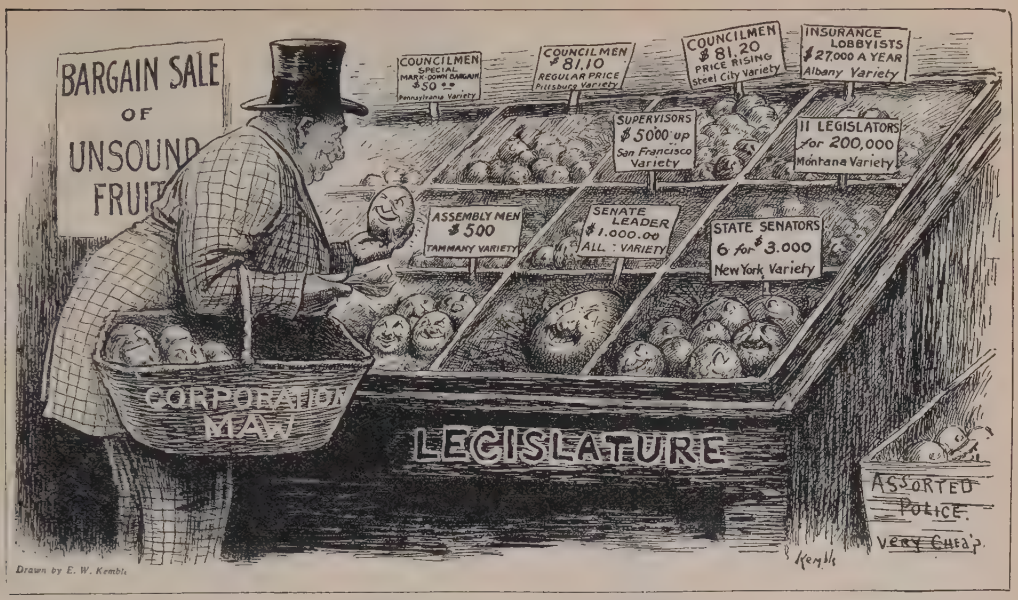
Arizona and New Mexico will, no doubt, soon get a Congressional pass for admission to the Statehood game!

THE END OF THE WORLD
From the *Press* (New York)

In spite of the dire predictions made by the "bosses" as to what would result should Governor Hughes' plan for direct nominations be adopted by the New York State Legislature, there is a growing sentiment among the real leaders of all parties that the people should be given opportunity for a more direct participation in the choice of candidates for office. For an excellent summary of the whole movement for direct nominations throughout the country, with special reference to the New York plan, see page 597 of this REVIEW.

CLEANING HOUSE
(Apropos of contemplated changes in Congress)
From the *American* (New York)

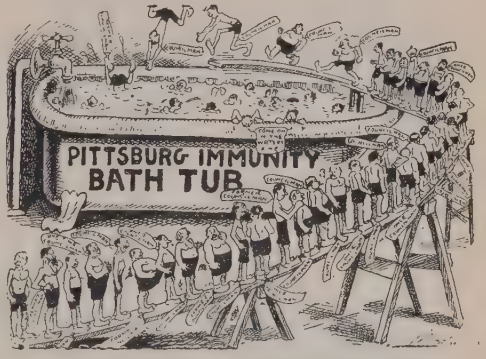
THE EARLY GARDENER
(Some spring gardening by Mr. Folk, with Mr. Bryan as the interested neighbor!)
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



THE HIGH COST OF LIVING!

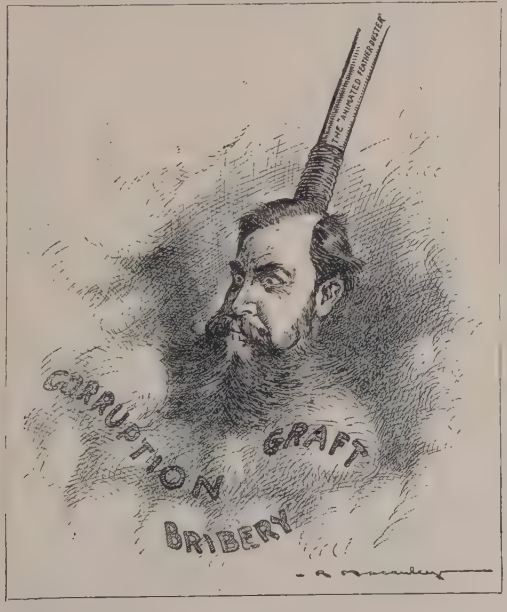
From *Collier's* (New York)

This page of cartoons is devoted entirely to politcial "graft,"—also political renovation. The guilty Pittsburg councilmen have been lining up to confess their guilt and receive an immunity bath, while in New York Governor Hughes has vigorously demanded a thorough, complete, and impartial investigation into legislative corruption.



THE PITTSBURG COUNCILMANIC SWIM

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)



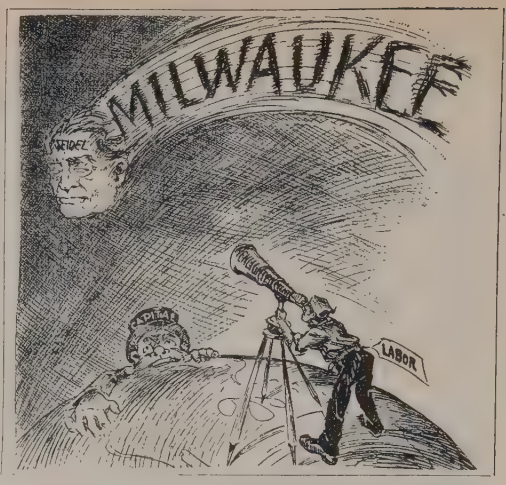
GOVERNOR HUGHES, AS THE "ANIMATED FEATHER DUSTER," IN ACTION AGAIN

From the *World* (New York)

WHO'S AFRAID OF A LITTLE HOUSE-CLEANING?

From the *Press* (New York)

WHILE THERE'S LIFE THERE'S HOPE
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)

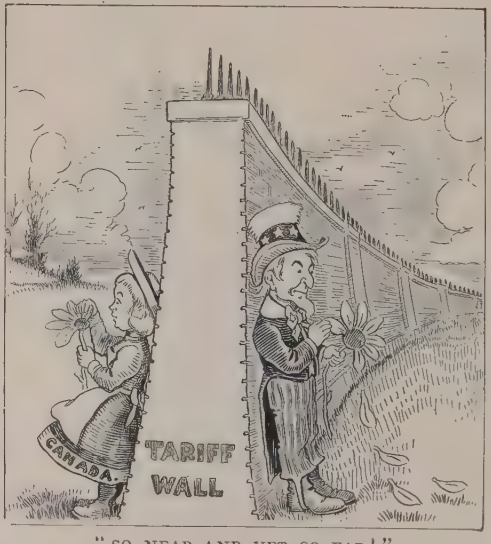


A PORTENT IN THE HEAVENS
From the *New York Call* (Socialist)

"AIN'T THEY CUTE?"
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)

THE EAST: "All my bulldogs!"
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)

JUST IN TIME
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)



"SO NEAR AND YET SO FAR!"
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

THE HOME-COMING OF ROOSEVELT

BY WALTER WELLMAN

[Mr. Wellman's article, which follows herewith, derives its chief interest and importance from the fact that it is written from the viewpoint of the ablest of American newspaper correspondents, who went from Washington to join the Roosevelt party in Egypt, and who has, therefore, the advantage of seeing Mr. Roosevelt from day to day. Further than that, Mr. Wellman's intimate acquaintance with American and European affairs gives a background to his picture of America's distinguished citizen as he emerges from his year in Africa and faces homeward amidst the plaudits of European peoples. The political expressions in this article are, of course, Mr. Wellman's alone, and it would not be proper to regard them as having been inspired.—THE EDITOR.]

WITHOUT doubt the most talked-about man in the world these days is former President Roosevelt. Not in office, not in action, a simple traveler abroad, his name is on every tongue, in every newspaper of the world. His tour of Africa and Europe prior to his return to his own country in June is everywhere regarded as one of the most remarkable episodes of recent times. It is, of course, looked at from many angles. Difficult, indeed, would it be to describe the various emotions with which it is viewed in many countries and many circles. In America, if we may believe the reports which come to us through both public and private channels, the expected is happening: That is, his enemies (and he is blessed with his fair share of them) affect to believe that his tour is nothing more nor less than a preliminary campaign for another term in the White House. His friends and admirers (who appear to constitute the vast majority of the American people) think less of possible ulterior motives and more of the extraordinary honors with which he is everywhere being received, and regard his tour as a fitting sequel to a great career in the public life of America and to his year of picturesque though well-advertised retirement in African jungles.

One conclusion seems to be almost universally accepted, by friend and foe alike: Mr. Roosevelt is the foremost and most famous of living Americans. If this were not realized before, it is now. His trip is marked by demonstrations of interest, admiration, and respect surpassing anything of the sort ever before known. Certainly no such honors were ever paid a citizen of the United States traveling abroad. General Grant, on his memorable tour of the world, with a high military and civic prestige behind him, was everywhere greeted with cordiality by official personages. Not only do those high in official place vie with one another in honoring Roosevelt, but the masses of the people are alive to his personality and his fame and delight to give him the homage of their acclaim. Crowds in the streets, at railway stations, on quays, in theaters, wherever he appears, in Egypt, Italy, France, Austria (I write as the tour is in progress), testify to the fact that this American, in some way or other, has managed to impress himself upon the consciousness of peoples who are generally quite indifferent to all that goes on within or comes from out the great Western republic. Even those who must be regarded as woefully ignorant of America, its affairs and personages, seem to have heard of Roosevelt, to know that he is called "Teddy," and to be fairly familiar with some of his other characteristics and surroundings.

A MORE THAN ROYAL TRIUMPH

This sketch is written from the viewpoint of one who for several weeks has been Mr. Roosevelt's traveling companion and who is his friend and admirer without being toward him a confidant or a hero-worshiper. What I am striving to do is to give some idea of the manner in which he is received and regarded in the countries which he visits. Wherever we go we of the entourage of the former President see marked evidence of the fact that he occupied a place unique, peculiar, not easy to understand or define, and still more difficult to explain as to its causes, in the world's estimate.

We are even prepared to believe that which is told us by so many of the diplomatists, officials, journalists, officers, and other men of information we meet and converse with, namely, that Theodore Roosevelt is not only the foremost citizen of our own country, but the most famous of living men. They tell us, and seemingly with candor and

truth, that not the King of England, nor the Czar of Russia, nor the Emperor of Germany, nor any other sovereign or personage could attract half the attention that is showered upon this private citizen of the United States. Analysis of the why and wherefore I leave to others; my mission is simply to record the fact. Here in Europe, whence I write, they regard him as not a king, but something more than king. And a number of keen observers have spoken to me of what to them seems the significant reflex of this extraordinary circumstance,—that the people of Europe are fast outgrowing many of their traditional points of view, their lethargy and indifference, and becoming more and more keen as to personalities, as to character, as to individual rather than institutional developments. One commentator, a journalist of marked ability, said: "At heart the people of Europe are hero-worshipers, just like you Americans. It has been a long time since they had a Napoleon, a Bismarck or a Garibaldi. Hence the eagerness and warmth with which they greet your Mr. Roosevelt."

I cannot pretend to speak of the impression which Mr. Roosevelt's triumphal tour produces upon his countrymen who are in America. But such is the impression among the foreigners with whom he comes in contact or who see him at a distance. As for the Americans sojourning or traveling abroad, we meet many of them; and they go far and wait long just to see him or hear him, and to a man,—and this includes the women, for I think a large majority of the swarms of Americans we meet in foreign lands are women,—they are proud of his name and fame and look upon the homage given him as belonging in some little part to the country and the people from whom he comes.

NEWSPAPER ENTERPRISE AND INTEREST

With many of Mr. Roosevelt's critics at home it is a favorite theory that he is posing, that he is deliberately trying to attract attention, that he contrives with cunning the situations which carry his name so far. But no evidence of this is discerned by those who travel with him and watch him hour by hour. It was no fault of his that important newspapers and news-gathering organizations in America sent special correspondents all the way to the heart of Africa to meet him. It was no fault of his that some of these correspondents chartered special steamers and raced hundreds of miles up the White Nile from Khartoum to win the satisfaction of being the first to greet him on his emergence from the wilderness. Nor can he be blamed if he received these men of the press, almost all of them old friends, upon his own steamer and greeted them as any other man with warm blood in his veins would have done. Mr. Roosevelt cannot be held responsible for the fact that newspaper owners were willing to spend large sums in travel expenses, steamers, and cable tolls to get early and copious tidings of him; we may be sure the newspapers would not have done this if public interest had not spurred them on. Nor was it Mr. Roosevelt's fault that many European journals sent their star men to meet him and write about him all the way from Cairo to London. When we arrived at Naples and Rome we who had accompanied the former President from Egypt were as much surprised as he was to find that the leading newspapers of all the capitals of Europe had their correspondents there; and these correspondents said never had meeting of emperors or kings attracted so much attention or roused such widespread interest in Europe.

The truth is, as is known to all of us who were the first to meet and talk with him as he came out of the jungle, that Mr. Roosevelt was a very much amazed man when he saw these indications of world-wide interest in himself. He had schooled his mind to the belief that he had passed from the stage, had had his day, and that others had taken his place in the popular attention. It is doubtless true also that he had a genuine and wholly natural curiosity as to what his reception would be; and it is not too much to say that he was equally surprised and delighted to find that he was still an object of the world's interest. To say this is to say that Mr. Roosevelt has his fair share of proper human vanity, and nothing more.

THE GUEST OF KINGS AND EMPERORS

Mr. Roosevelt invited no journalists to come and meet him; but when they had come he met and talked with them as frequently as was necessary to serve their purpose. In fact, he made traveling companions of them, as he did of every one entitled to his regard. His surprise at finding so many journalists at Khartoum, and farther south, and all along his route, was the greater from the fact that the day of his emergence and the plan to meet Mrs. Roosevelt and his daugh-

ter at Khartoum about March 15 had as far as possible been kept secret. If he could have had his way, and carried out his original intention, it is certain that he would have traveled much more simply than he did,—as an ordinary traveler paying his way. He did travel as simply as he could. But if the government of the Soudan insisted upon putting at his disposition a special steamer, and would have him sleep and dine in the famous palace at Khartoum, where Gordon fell, and would provide a special car for him on the railway and a private yacht on the Nile, and the Khedive of Egypt and the King of Italy and the Emperor of Austria insisted upon his company at dinner, at drives, at luncheons, and if municipalities erected triumphal arches and presented him the freedom of the city, what could Mr. Roosevelt do? Certainly none of this was of his own seeking; and while he might have been more content to go his way as a private individual, only a churl refuses well-meant hospitality.

MINGLING WITH OTHER TRAVELERS

Mr. Roosevelt travels in a dual rôle, and has sense enough to perceive it. He is a private citizen, and he is a former President of the United States. He has tried never to forget that he is both. In so far as possible he has sought to divest all functions of official character. Invitations he has accepted, but in his rôle as a private individual. For example, upon the menu cards at the beautiful dinner given in his honor by the Soudan Club at Khartoum, by his wish his name appeared as "the Honorable the Colonel Roosevelt," not as former President of the United States. And everywhere, by common consent, including his own, he has been spoken to and of as "Colonel Roosevelt," or "the Colonel." He has lived in palaces placed at his disposal, but always with the door wide open to his friends. He has traveled in private cars, but always taking his meals with other travelers in the common dining coach, though his own car was fitted with a private dining-room. Crossing the Mediterranean he and Mrs. Roosevelt preferred taking their meals in the saloon, at the captain's table, and they mingled with the other passengers daily.

Everywhere he has insisted upon meeting all sorts of people and visiting all sorts of places, and from the white Nile to the Danube men have been surprised at his geniality, his good fellowship, his humor, his energy, his frankness, his curiosity or desire for knowledge which has found vent in the asking of myriads of questions, and in his remarkable versatility, his familiarity with history, archeology, architecture, politics, and persons,—from his knowledge of Arabic literature to his acquaintance with the antiquities of Egypt and Rome. This versatility did not surprise his American comrades, who knew of his marvelous faculty for reading photographically and retaining in the memory like a phonograph, but it amazed the foreigners. And when he had occasion to speak at universities, schools, banquets, whether he spoke without or with preparation, his hearers, whether English, Egyptian, Italian, or Austrian, almost to a man looked upon him as one of the greatest orators they had ever heard. Many even went so far as to say that after hearing him they could well understand how and why he had become such a great man in his own country,—it was his matchless eloquence. When told that his new friends had put him in the peerless class of oratory, Colonel Roosevelt's smile was eloquent indeed.

THE CAIRO INCIDENT

In one of his addresses in Egypt Mr. Roosevelt said he had once told his Methodist brethren in America that if he had been one of them he should have asked for license as lay preacher. Without doubt this disclosed one of the many bents of mind of this remarkable man. If he had not been a publicist and political leader he might well have been a preacher. He does love to preach. On this tour most of his addresses have been characteristic in that they dealt with the perfectly obvious, but the obvious spoken so earnestly and impressively as to rouse great warmth of sympathy and approval. His penchant for preaching stirred up almost an incident in Egypt. Convinced through ample observation of the good work the English were doing in the depths of Africa and in the Soudan, it was only natural for him to start preaching to the natives of their duty of loyalty to the government. This was quietly resented by a few of the Egyptian officers in the Soudan. But it was not till he made his address at the university in Cairo that any deep feeling was stirred. Aware by this time that there was criticism of his outspokenness, as is like him, Mr. Roosevelt sought to modify the harshness of his language, but stood manfully to his guns as to the thought itself. He believed the Egyptians were not fit for self-government,

and by implication told them so. It happens that since the revolution in Turkey a considerable nationalist movement has sprung up among the younger Egyptians. They want a constitution. They ask that some limit be set to the duration of British rule. Having been governed by aliens for about 3000 years, they believe the time has come when Egypt should be ruled by Egyptians. And they organized demonstrations and made speeches in resentment of Mr. Roosevelt's advice. They declared it came with poor grace for their visitor, who had fought to free Cuba of alien rule, to come to Egypt and advise perpetual submission to foreigners. Inasmuch as it is fairly well known the English never intend to get out of Egypt, perhaps the local observers are right in predicting that at some day not far distant there will be need of all the firmness and perhaps all the troops England can command to keep a secure footing.

The Roosevelt episode attracted attention everywhere, and in America there were criticisms to the effect that Mr. Roosevelt had violated the first law of hospitality by touching upon controversial points in the country whose guest he was. It is certain that the Egyptian nationalists took this view. But the fact is that Mr. Roosevelt was in no sense the guest of the country. He stopped at a hotel, paid his bill, accepted invitations out to dinners and luncheons and teas like any traveler, and that was all. Moreover, he was a private citizen; and he held that if they had not wished him to speak his mind they should not have asked him to speak to them at all.

THE AFFAIR WITH THE VATICAN

On account of this incident at Cairo it became axiomatic among the corps of attendant newspaper correspondents that wherever "the Colonel" went there was likely to be something doing. It so proved. At Rome, as all the world knows, there was the misunderstanding with the Vatican authorities as to the audience with the Pope. Now that it is all over it will do no harm to state the verdict of disinterested and well-informed men living at Rome. This is that the misunderstanding was due to a lack of diplomacy on both sides. If there had been a mediator of average skill and common sense the whole trouble could have been averted. Colonel Roosevelt was well aware of the susceptibilities of the Vatican. He knew very well that according to the papal view the Methodists of America maintain a propaganda at Rome, not in good faith, not as a sincere and earnest religious work, but solely as a thorn in the side of the leader of the Roman faith. Mr. Roosevelt passes no judgment as to the correctness of this opinion; it is a matter with which he has nothing to do. But, acquainted with the sensitiveness of the Vatican, he was determined to give no cause for offense. He had declined all invitations to speak to or visit the organization whose presence in Rome had stirred up so much bitterness. And he had no intention of making any such engagement, and supposed this fact was well known to the Papal Secretary of State and other advisers of the Pope. As a matter of fact it was only imperfectly known to them; and to make assurance doubly sure they granted the audience sought by Mr. Roosevelt with an expression which to them voiced a hope but which in Mr. Roosevelt's ear sounded like a stipulation, or condition,—to wit, that he must pledge himself not to visit the Methodists. Holding that his self-respect as an individual and his dignity as former President of the republic would not permit him to accept a courtesy with conditions attached limiting his freedom of action as to other friends, Mr. Roosevelt declined to accede.

If there had been at hand an intermediary of ordinary diplomatic accomplishments this trivial difference of interpretation might easily have been removed. But unfortunately, so far as this episode is concerned, the American Ambassador at Rome is not permitted to hold any relations with the Vatican, and no other convenient mutual friend presented himself at the critical juncture. Colonel Roosevelt was sincerely sorry for the contretemps. Despite the well-nigh universal opinion in Rome, shared by most Catholics, that his attitude had been correct and blameless, he was unwilling to even seem to countenance criticism of the Vatican, and when a spokesman more or less authorized attacked the Roman Church in the name of the Methodist organization, Mr. Roosevelt rebuked that by canceling an engagement he had made to meet American citizens at the embassy, it having been understood that most of the Methodists in Rome intended to present themselves on that occasion. All the way from Uganda to the Eternal City Mr. Roosevelt had been preaching religious tolerance, and it was irritating to have an unpleasantness of this sort linked with his name, notwithstanding all his precautions to the contrary. It is known

that the Pope is also chagrined at the outcome. At Rome they say the practical lesson to be drawn from the episode is that the Vatican should equip itself with a diplomatic department capable of dealing with men and affairs of our day in a truly modern spirit.

NOT THINKING ABOUT POLITICS NOW

Many of the foreigners who have met Mr. Roosevelt cannot understand why he is not still President of the United States. Still less can they understand why he should not be a seeker for the Presidency again. They look upon him as the greatest man in the world, and think it strange that with his youth and energy he should be in private life. This is a subject which Mr. Roosevelt has declined to discuss. So far as I am aware, he has not confided his thoughts to any one; certainly he has not to me, and anything which I may here write will be without his knowledge and without the slightest responsibility, direct or indirect, resting upon him.

Mr. Roosevelt has been appealed to by hundreds of his friends in America to give some expression as to his future plans. His mail has grown to such proportions that most of the time he has kept two stenographers busy disposing of his correspondence, and at one time was forced to announce a request that people do not write him unnecessarily, since it is physically impossible to answer all letters, much as he would like to do so. His friends who write him from America, giving advice as to what he should or should not do in politics, divide into two classes: One believes the Republican party is now in more or less distress; that it has fallen upon evil times; that the one man who could help it escape defeat at the coming fall elections is Mr. Roosevelt; that it is his duty as a party man to come to the rescue and do all in his power for the organization which made him President. The other holds that Mr. Roosevelt now occupies a unique place in the estimate of the American people; that he is above mere party politics and leadership; that he belongs to the whole country, regardless of parties; that it would be a pain and disappointment to millions of Democrats and Independents who admire him and trust him if he were to attempt to pull Republican chestnuts out of the fire. Colonel Roosevelt has not intimated which of these two antagonistic counsels finds greater favor in his eyes. He answers all inquiries with the statement that he is not thinking about politics at this time, and does not intend to do so till he shall have been at home for some months and had the opportunity to look over the situation for himself.

FUTURE POLITICAL ACTIVITIES

If I may hazard a guess, simply from common knowledge and observation, Mr. Roosevelt's inclination is strongly toward the second of these courses, toward a line of action which will keep him out of politics so far as any design of his own is concerned. The difficulty is, as every one knows who knows Mr. Roosevelt, that keeping still is the most arduous assignment in the world for him. He does not relish the idea of passing his days in silence and inaction. Where there are questions to be discussed and reforms to be championed he loves to be in the thick of the fight. While his present inclination,—we cannot say decision,—appears to be to retire like Cincinnatus to his plow, discussing moral questions in his rôle as editorial writer for the *Outlook* and occasional speaker at some non-political gathering, no one could venture a prediction as to what he will actually do. He may intend one thing and by the stress of circumstances and the demands of his own nature be drawn into another before many months shall have passed.

One thing seems perfectly clear: This most popular, energetic, masterful man is a factor to be reckoned with in the future politics of the United States. To leave him out would be a reversal of the law of gravity. He has lost none of his interest in home affairs. He is as well informed to-day of what has happened during his absence as most men who have remained all the time in the country. Apparently not a move on the board has escaped his notice. Those who attempt to tell him news undertake a profitless task. He knows it all already. And he is watchful and alert to an extraordinary degree for one who has just concluded a year amassing a collection of 13,000 natural-history specimens, and is now engaged upon a record-breaking tour of Europe.

AS TO THE PRESIDENCY

Again writing solely as an observer, and upon my own responsibility, simply for the purpose of giving information to the American people, I feel it a duty to dispel one political myth which long has been current in the United States, and which has been somewhat assiduously circulated by interested persons at Washington. This myth is to the effect that Colonel Roosevelt has such a feeling toward the present occupant of the

White House that under no circumstances whatever would he permit the use of his name as a rival to Mr. Taft for the next Presidency. While the relations between President Taft and Colonel Roosevelt are not as cordial and intimate as they once were, there is no quarrel between them, no bitterness. But if Colonel Roosevelt were to assume that it was his duty to stand aside,—to announce his determination to stand aside,—in order that Mr. Taft might have a second term, that would be putting Mr. Roosevelt in politics. It would be a use of his influence and prestige to accomplish a certain end in the politics of his country. And that would be inconsistent with Mr. Roosevelt's policy,—the only policy he has at present,—of political non-interference.

A POLICY OF "NON-INTERFERENCE"

It is true that Mr. Roosevelt once made Mr. Taft President. That is known to all men, excepting, possibly, Mr. Taft himself. For this interference, this dictatorship, some called it, Mr. Roosevelt was severely criticized. There were reasons why he did it. Those reasons no longer exist. At any rate, Mr. Roosevelt has no intention of again committing what many deemed an error of zeal. What his personal opinions of Mr. Taft are is known only to himself. But it is unmistakable that he feels no such pride of authorship as would lead him to demand of the country that it accept a second edition. If the country wants a second edition it will call for it. The question as to who is to be the next President is above and beyond mere personal considerations, and it is above machine organization and delegations to conventions controlled through government patronage. Mr. Roosevelt has not a straw to lay in Mr. Taft's way. He will neither criticise nor defend the present administration. Whomsoever the people want for their next President they will get, and it is not for any man to say them nay.

Photograph by Paul Thompson

EX-PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT THE RUINS OF THE ROMAN FORUM

AN INTERNATIONAL MEDALLIC EXHIBITION

BY A. PIATT ANDREW

(Director of the Mint)

THE international exhibition of medals recently held in New York under the auspices of the American Numismatic Society and which came to a close on April 1 was epoch-marking in at least two respects. As an exhibition of modern medals it was unique in its variety and completeness, and as an indication of the awakening of American appreciation in a field of art hitherto neglected it was equally significant. It is doubtful whether even in Europe the opportunity has ever been offered to see so representative a collection of contemporary medallic work from all of the leading countries, and it is especially gratifying that this essentially artistic exhibit of medals should have been arranged in America, where, until recently, the interest of numismatists has been mainly revoted to a meaningless collection of coins of rare date, lettering or design. Doubtless there will still be collectors ready to pay thousands of dollars for an ordinary silver dollar piece bearing the date 1804, but the 1910 exhibition of the American Numismatic Society points the way to an incomparably more intelligent field of activity for the numismatic collector. The two thousand or more medals here exhibited were interesting not because they bore a certain word or beading or date, but because they were products of imaginative effort and of technical skill.

The exhibition repeatedly demonstrated what in America might be easily overlooked, that good portraiture is not confined to the larger arts of drawing, painting, and sculpture. The medals of Chaplain, of which there were no less than forty in the exhibi-

PORTRAIT OF ALPHONSE DE WITTE, BY G. DEVREESE

(The designer of this medal, G. Devreese, a Belgian, was awarded the title of Commemorative Medalist for 1910 for having presented the most successful exhibit, receiving a commission for a medal, the cost of which is not to exceed $3000)

PORTRAIT OF CHARLES GARNIER, BY J. C. CHAPLAIN

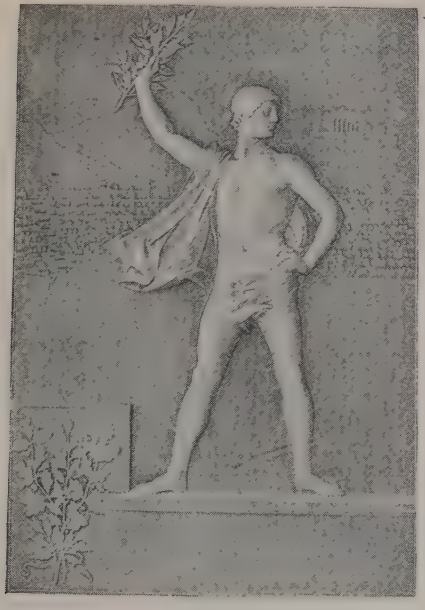
PORTRAIT OF THE DUC D'AUMALE, BY J. C. CHAPLAIN

PORTRAIT OF MADAME ROTY, BY LOUIS O. ROTY

(The inscription below the portrait is characteristic of the sculptor: "I have fixed your features in bronze, dearest wife, that I might always have you before my eyes, always young and always happy")

PORTRAIT OF MADAME CLAUDE, BY J. C. CHAPLAIN

(The portraits of Chaplain (who died last year) have long been recognized as among the most wonderful products of modern medallic art)



MEDAL FOR ATHLETIC SPORTS, BY FREDERIC VERNON

tion, and of which three striking examples, those of Madame Claude, the Duc D'Aumale, and Charles Garnier, are here reproduced, present portraits instinct with life, character, and individuality. Numerous other examples of subtle modeling and good portraiture were to be found in the exhibits of other Frenchmen like Roty, the sympathetic portrait of whose wife is here reproduced, and of Henri Nocq, and of the Belgian Devreese, who received the award of the exhibition and whose forceful portrait of Alphonse de Witte accompanies this article, and of the Austrians Marschall and Kautsch, whose vigorous medal of the painter Lenbach is also reproduced, and of the English engraver Spicer-Simson, and of our own Victor Brenner, not to mention a dozen others. Many visitors who had not followed recent developments in the medallic field in Europe must have been surprised at the range of subjects which engravers are now endeavoring to portray upon these small disks and plaques of metal. In the present exhibition the subjects ranged from bucolic landscapes (Vernon), glimpses of rocks and

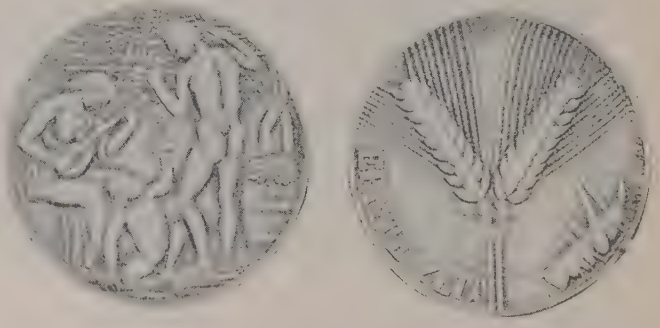
FUNERAL OF PRESIDENT CARNOT, BY L. O. ROTY

(Roty is the most famous of all modern medalists, and this is one of his best liked works. It is struck at the French Mint in Paris, and may be bought there by visitors at little more than the cost of the metal. Roty is now an old man and his working days are substantially over)

sea (Lenoir), and studies of clouds (Sucharda) to purely decorative and unrepresentational designs. They included also many *genre* pictures, and at least one remarkable group of studies of domestic and wild animals in varying attitudes of activity and repose (Victor Peter). Many of the best French medals of this class are executed at the French Mint, although designed by various engravers, and they are sold there to the general public at the nominal cost of their manufacture. Notable among these is Roty's beautiful elegiac medallion in memory of President Carnot which, with its group of draped mourners approaching the Pantheon in solemn and rhythmic tread, suggests mystery and grief and destiny with something of the same appeal as the famous Adams monument by Saint-Gaudens in Washington.

The variety of technique displayed among the different exhibitors was equally worthy of note. Some of the medals were worked out in relief so low and with outlines so obliterated that they resembled shaded drawings or paintings rather than modeled work, as in the Millet-like medals of peasants at work by Ovide Yencesse; while others, as in the dramatic bronze plaques of Roche and Castiglione, were in such bold relief that they were hardly to be told from sculptures.

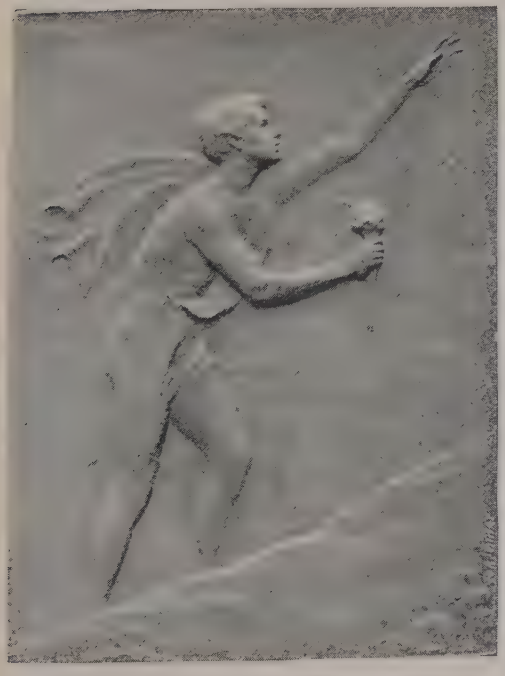
"THE COMMUNICANTS," BY FREDERIC VERNON



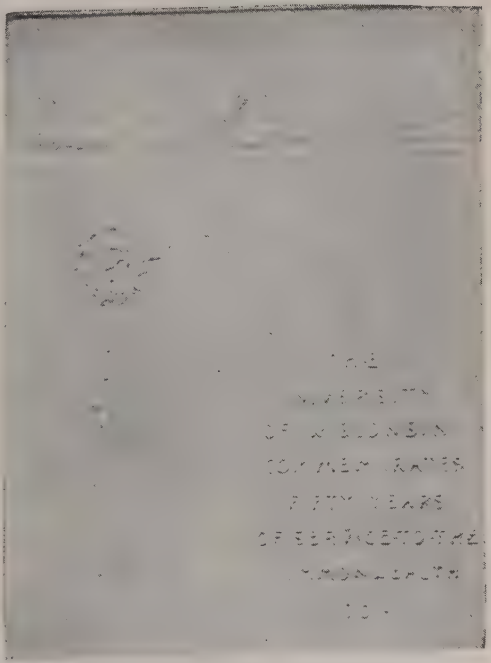
"HARVEST TIME," BY GEORG ROEMER

"POETRY," BY FREDERIC VERNON

"CHILD DRINKING," BY GENEVIÈVE GRANGER



UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN COMMEMORATIVE MEDAL, BY VICTOR D. BRENNER



OBVERSE OF BRENNER'S UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN MEDAL

PORTRAIT OF F. VON LENBACH, BY HENRI KAUTSCH

Among the practitioners of this minuscule art were representatives of most of the varied and contrasting types familiar in modern painting and sculpture. Here was a devotee of facts and scrupulous portrayer of details, there an impressionist who dislikes and eliminates them; here was the illustrator primarily anxious to depict his story, there the designer contemptuous of representation and interested only in line, color, and rhythm; here was a poet, there a symbolist, yonder a realist; in this alcove an imitator of the

primitive, on the next wall an emulator of the classical antique, in another partition a follower of the renascent Italian. It is difficult, in fact, to think of any phase of modern art which was not represented among the upwards of 150 medalists who contributed to the New York exhibition.

It is fortunate that at last America is awakening to the possibilities of medallic art, and it is particularly fortunate that at this moment an intelligent, catholic and generous organization such as the American Numismatic Society is at hand to assist in the development of appreciation and to encourage technical skill in this important field. It is perhaps not too much to hope that out of this awakening interest will grow a demand that the medals struck to commemorate events and achievements in our history shall be better conceived and better executed than they have been in the past, and that our coins, of which so many millions of copies are made which are handled and regarded by so many millions of people, and of which so many examples will survive centuries after we are gone, shall more worthily express our artistic development and better typify our national ideals.

A LEADER IN THE NEW ART OF NATURE PHOTOGRAPHY

A. Radclyffe Dugmore, and the Revolution of the Last Twenty Years in Nature Pictures

BY HENRY WYSHAM LANIER

ONE day, about twelve years ago, a New York publisher was working in his office when the boy brought in word that there was a gentleman outside who wished to show him some pictures. Having no understudy, the busy publisher resigned himself with a groan to a few minutes of boredom, which he resolved to make very brief indeed. The fresh-faced young Englishman who walked in opened a portfolio and laid before him, not the hopeless drawings he feared, but a batch of photographs which made him sit up with an exclamation. For here were glimpses of nature in her most intimate moods, her most delightful privacies, —stiff skunk cabbages and fuzzy-stemmed hepaticas unfolding in the spring warmth; wonder-eyed brown mother-thrushes on the nest, protecting the precious eggs in the face of the intruding camera; spotted-breasted little fledgling blue-birds in their inimitable poses; earnest warblers and sparrows actually thrusting grasshoppers into the clamorous beaks of their greedy youngsters,—all taken with an artist's sense of composition and lighting, a born nature lover's patient faculty of discovery, and a technical skill in the difficult photographic problems involved which set an entirely new standard for such work.

By a lucky chance this publishing house was just beginning the issue of an elaborate American natural history; so the man and the opportunity came together at once. The first results were a series of over a hundred photographs of wild flowers, many of them skillfully colored by hand, which at one stroke made the signature of "A. Radclyffe Dugmore" mean a new kind of realism in nature pictures to many thousands of readers; and there followed in succeeding years similar unparalleled presentments of the common wild animals, of live fish photographed *in the water* (it took many months at Key West and elsewhere with a specially designed aquarium and infinite ingenuity to accomplish these), and of trees, with marvelously detailed identifying views of leaf, flower, bud, and fruit. In addition, Mr. Dugmore wrote and illustrated one volume of the set, "Bird Homes," and published, in 1902, a manual of the new art which he had done so much to create, "Nature and the Camera," which is still a little classic of this now widely popular art.

Naturally enough, when this same firm started an outdoor magazine in 1901, Mr. Dugmore became connected with it as chief photographer, and for over seven years he produced a volume and quality of work

which only the evanescent nature of a monthly magazine prevented from causing even more of a sensation than it did create.

For, any one familiar with the illustrations of nature up to 1895, say, cannot turn over these pages without realizing that this modest young artist was the leader in a veritable revolution. There had been, of course, many earnest naturalist-artists who devoted themselves to making exact pictorial records of their observations; and in the first half of the nineteenth century our matchless Audubon produced those wonderful plates of birds and animals which still stand as the high-water mark of effort in this direction. But these elaborate copper-plate facsimiles were always necessarily for the few on account of their costliness, and a sight of the ordinary nature books of our own childhood shows at a glance what an immense advance was made when the camera, after half a century's neglect of the opportunity, was turned upon the details of the world about us.

MR. DUGMORE IN PURSUIT OF A PICTURE IN AFRICA, USING THE TELEPHOTO

In his magazine work Mr. Dugmore duplicated the experience of enthusiasts like Muybridge, whose photographs of galloping horses had such a direct influence upon the artists (compare Frederic Remington's horses, for instance, with the thousands of "extended" animals in the old English prints, otherwise so accurate). I have had artists tell me repeatedly not only that they have found a mine of material in his camera work, but that their eyes had been educated all over again to see postures and contours in animate things formerly hidden from them. Even the best draughtsmen of flying ducks never grasped some of the striking attitudes, the incredible changes in outline of a wild duck revealed by many of Dugmore's "snapshots."

It is interesting to glance at the training which produced such a man and directed the undoubted genius which he has. His father was a captain in the English army, who retired and in Ireland devoted himself to the sport of which he was as passionately fond as the typical outdoor Englishman. When young Arthur was eight years old he was taken out daily on those delightful excursions which resulted in "mixed bags" of snipe, ducks, rabbits, and so on. His duty was to "mark down" the birds not fired at, and mistakes were impressed upon him in the good old-fashioned corporeal way. Then, when he was still a mere boy, Captain Dugmore bought a sailing yacht and cruised around to foreign countries, dipping into wild boar hunting in one place, into quail shooting in Asia Minor,—sometimes giving the boys brief schooling at some port, more often educating this son in the complete art and science of sportsmanship. For instance, the elaborate arsenal of guns was Arthur's responsibility at sea, and if any one of the fifty showed a speck of rust, a reminder with a ramrod followed like effect upon cause. It is easy to see where the boy got some of the self-reliance, the adaptability, the readiness to meet any emergency, and the miscel-

laneous fund of useful every-day knowledge which are so marked in his later career.

After his father's death an art instinct led young Dugmore to the study of painting, and he came to America armed with his brushes and the garnerings of his actively adventurous boyhood. In spite of some windfalls (especially the sale of some paintings made in the island of Jamaica, where he studied and collected natural history specimens), he met with the usual experience of the unknown young artist in this country, and his experiments in using the camera were hardly more successful until he fell upon the opportunity narrated above.

During the period mentioned, many other enthusiastic photographers have done notable work of the same sort: Frank M. Chapman has recorded in pictures the most interesting flamingo and pelican colonies of Florida; Herbert K. Job, with admirable patience and skill, has shown us the wild ducks and grebes nesting in the Dakota sloughs, the strange puffins and hordes of gulls of the Magdalen Islands, and the other sea-fowl from Nova Scotia to Cape Sable; Finley and Bohlman have enabled us to watch the whole life history of the great golden eagle and the vulture, besides many other birds of the Far West; Julian A. Dimock has pictured the egrets and other herons of Florida wilds; Mr. and Mrs. Wallihan have recorded the mountain lion and deer and antelope of the Southwest; Carlin has secured a remarkable collection of the animals of the Montana mountains; Richard Kearton, in England, has matched work done anywhere; and literally hundreds of less famous photographers have piled up a vast collection of birds, animals, trees, flowers, and insects, which, reproduced cheaply in half-tone, have given the reading public a new insight into nature's most secret places. One can sit in a city room to-day and see the birds and animals in their daily wild life, the flowers unfolding, in a manner which would have been utterly impossible a short twenty years back.

Of course, too, the marvelous advance in processes of cheap reproduction of photographs has been a large factor in making pictures universal. Twenty-five years ago practically all the pictures one saw in books and magazines were printed from wooden blocks, with the exception, of course, of the expensive (and generally bad!) steel engravings. It took weeks, sometimes months, to cut on wood one of the elaborate full-page reproductions of paintings such as formed the chief appeal to the eye in the leading maga-

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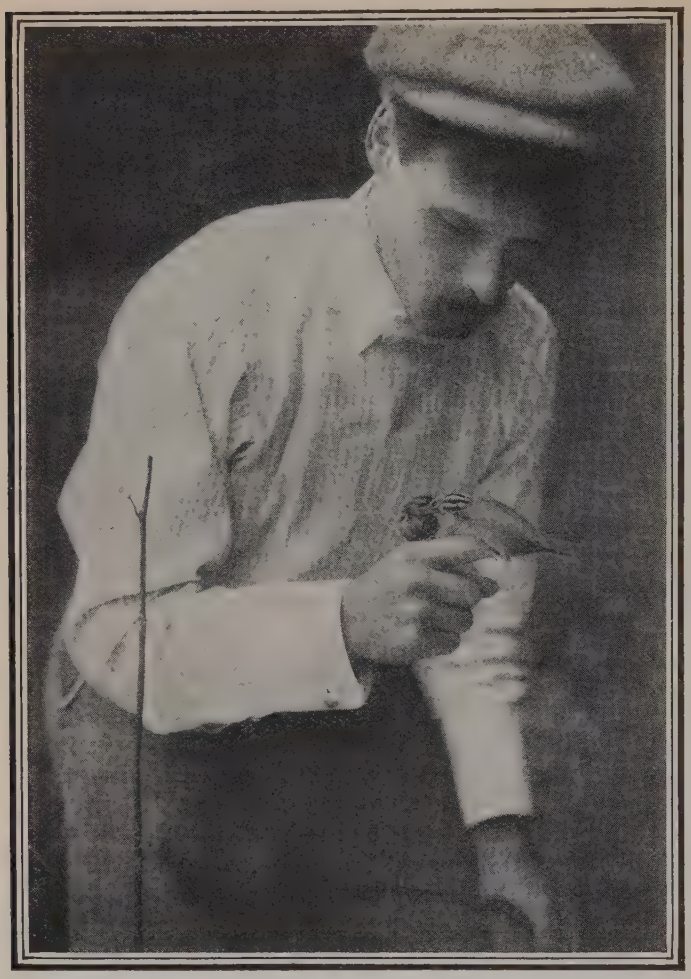
A LIONESS ABOUT TO COMMENCE HER NIGHT MEAL

(The hartebeest had been killed the night before by lions, and this flashlight was made at a distance of ten yards from a shelter or "boma" of thorn bushes)



MR. DUGMORE PHOTOGRAPHING A WARBLER, WHICH HE "MADE FRIENDS WITH" IN THE WOODS TILL IT FED ITS YOUNG ONE ON HIS HAND

(The bulb of the rubber tube running to the camera is held in the photographer's left hand)

zines, and they frequently cost hundreds of dollars. To-day a good half-tone (an etching photographed through a finely ruled screen on a copper plate, with the blank spaces eaten out by acid so as to leave the picture in relief) can be made in a few hours at an average of one-twentieth the cost of a wood-cut. Even the carefully re-engraved half-tone is infinitely more practicable than the old process. The result is blazoned large in every American home; such a thing as an unillustrated magazine hardly exists to-day, and many of the great daily newspapers put before us at breakfast admirable half-tone pictures, photographically exact, of events which happened the afternoon before. It is almost true that the half-tone picture in color or black and white is more important than the text in the American magazines, which circulate many millions of copies a month. It is a fact that there has been some artistic loss in this universalizing process; the fine old velvety blacks of the best wood-cuts exist no longer in our books and magazines; nor can they until some inventive genius gives us a half-tone process that dispenses with the ruled screen,—a problem on which many people are working and the successful solution of which is constantly rumored.

It is only fair to put on record the fact that Mr. Dugmore has been clearly the leader in this whole great movement, whose educational influence is just beginning to be realized; and, without making comparisons, I think it will be clear to any impartial observer that the aggregate of his work cannot be approached by that of any other natural photographer. In ten years he produced perhaps five to ten thousand negatives of this sort, and while the great mass have never been published, those which are in public evidence are a constant succession of surprises. You will find a mallard drake caught in mid-air so clearly that it seems as if you could count his wing-feathers, while the tremendous swiftness of his upward spring is shown by the still visible hollow in the water from which he rose. It doesn't surprise one after seeing that picture to know that the artist has about given up the gun, finding the camera-shooting more difficult and exciting. You will see a bunch of wild geese caught exactly overhead as the photographer fell over on his back to "swing

A YOUNG BULL MOOSE, LABORIOUSLY STALKED IN THE NEW BRUNSWICK WOODS, AND FINALLY PHOTOGRAPHED AT A DISTANCE OF A FEW FEET

onto them" with his camera, with an exposure of less than a thousandth of a second. There are herds of caribou on the Newfoundland barrens in the purple sunset, making pictures which would drive a painter wild, and a drinking moose caught at a distance of 10 feet.

Most spectacular of all are the salmon-fishing scenes, with a large, clear image of the silver fish 3 feet in the air, in all sorts of incredible attitudes, with the pool, the salmon, the line, the rod, and the fisherman all in the picture. And if you know the difficulties of carrying glass plates and a camera outfit into Newfoundland wilds, the maddening pest of the attacking black flies, the interminable waits when the salmon will not rise, the slim chance of having the necessary sunlight when a lively fish does take the fly, the problem of getting out into the water with the camera in the right spot at the right instant, the lightning-like adjustments required when the frenzied salmon hurls himself aloft in an unexpected spot,—and one must decide the distance, and aim, and focus, and work the shutter before he hits the water again; and then if you realize that with all the expertness in the world you must make a hundred such exposures to get half a dozen real "show" pictures, and that the development of these and getting them home safe is a maddeningly difficult operation in itself,—why, then, you may begin to realize the meaning of the photographs so lavishly spread abroad for your entertainment.

Of course such work calls for an extraordinary combination of mechanical and artistic skill; but many men who have this have not equaled Mr. Dugmore's achievements because of the lack of a certain sporting enthusiasm. One must have in addition all the qualities and experience that go to make a successful fisherman or hunter or naturalist, and it is just that last turn of the screw to tense nerves given by this indomitable absorption which makes the difference between success and failure. I have seen Dugmore seat himself on a rock beneath a torrential waterfall, devoured by black flies, waiting for half an hour to get a chance through the "smother" at a salmon as he launched himself vainly upward at the 30-foot wall of

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A HERD OF NEWFOUNDLAND CARIBOU SPLASHING AWAY FROM THE PHOTOGRAPHER

water,—and a more nerve-racking job would be hard to imagine.

Eighteen months ago Mr. Dugmore got the chance of which he had been dreaming

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COKE'S HARTEBEEST DRINKING
(Photographed by flashlight in British East Africa)

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ANGEL FISH

(Photographed in an aquarium. One of the first,—and best,—pictures ever made of a live, uninjured fish in the water)

for years, and from November, 1908, to June of last year he traveled through the sportsman's happy hunting-ground of British East Africa, using his acquired skill upon the big game of that region. The fruits of this trip are an elaborate new volume, "Camera Adventures in the African Wilds," where again he has clearly surpassed all his competitors. The famous pictures secured by Schillings, with his vast outfit, seem poor and thin beside these really epoch-making views of lions coming to their own kill at night, of charging rhinoceros photographed head-on at a distance of 14 yards, and of all the other forms of wild life with which this country still swarms. The nerve and coolness exhibited in securing these portraits of dangerous beasts and the immense technical skill displayed give real fascination to the book; and it is no wonder that the photographs and the artist's lectures with lantern slides have created a veritable sensation among scientists, sportsmen, and the public in general. As he remarks, he went with the idea of shooting nothing, and it was only in a few cases (where the choice was between his own life or that of a lion or rhinoceros) that his trip resulted in any killing whatsoever. This resolve caused some rather tense situations: on one occasion a charging rhinoceros refused to turn, in spite of receiving various loads of shot and revolver balls all the way from sixty yards' distance down to less than fifteen yards,—when his portrait was secured. And had it not been for the big Masai guide, who drove a spear into the animal, the adventurous photographer would probably never have had a chance to show his record-making picture. At another time, after a long stalk of a lion, he found that two other lions were stalking him! And in a single night, sheltered only by a little structure of thorn bushes, he made flashlight photographs of twelve lions coming to feed a few yards away. The Royal Geographical Society of London at once recognized the achievement by making Mr. Dugmore a F.R.G.S.

This is his most ambitious work to date, but he is already thinking of new worlds to conquer, planning a trip to India and a return to other sections of Africa. So we may expect further accomplishment in a career which has already been notable in a new field of endeavor for a man still under forty.

A CENTER OF PAN-AMERICANISM

A FULL century has now elapsed since the republics of Latin-America began that series of revolutions which resulted in the overthrow of Spanish dominion in the New World. Beginning in the year 1810, the fires of revolt soon spread from Argentina to Mexico, until within less than a decade a whole chain of new nations had been born, extending from near the Antarctic Circle northward to the frontiers of the United States.

This year, again beginning with Argentina and continuing northward to Mexico, the Latin-American republics are celebrating the first century of their existence as independent nations. All of Pan-America, whether the tongue be Spanish, Portuguese, or English, joins in the celebration.

In her splendid modern capital Buenos Aires, the second largest Latin city of the world, Argentina will inaugurate during the present month an extensive exposition, showing on a grand scale the progress of a continent for a century in transportation and the other industrial arts. Later, Chile, in her capital Santiago, will open to all America the doors of an exposition of fine arts.

In mid-summer there will assemble in the Argentine capital more than one hundred delegates from the twenty-one independent nations of the American hemisphere to the fourth Pan-American Conference. Many able statesmen and diplomats will participate in this conference. The United States will be fittingly represented by men of not only national but international reputation. Thus the completion of the first century of nationhood finds a noble spirit of international and intercontinental fraternity animating the nations of the Western Hemisphere. The Pan-American idea, for so many years merely a dim abstraction, has at last acquired a vital meaning to all who in the continental sense bear the name American. Four years ago, when Mr. Root, then Secretary of State, made his memorable tour of Latin-America, he found a surprising unanimity in the matter of the Pan-American ideal and an increasing cordiality in the relations of the peoples of South and Central America. The influences of education and commerce are drawing together all these peoples. Even as we write these words, Chile and Argentina are celebrating the passage through the Andean tunnel of the first train from Buenos Aires to Santiago. This triumph of engineering skill must inevitably bring the two peoples closer together and emphasize

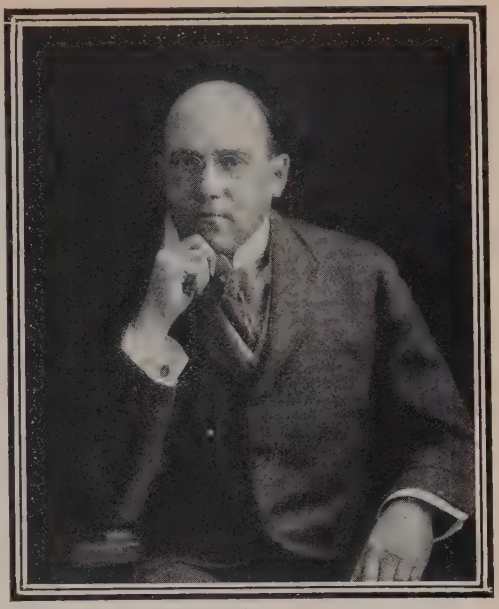
CENTRAL PANEL (REPRESENTING MEXICO), OF THE FRIEZE IN THE NEW BUILDING

the solemn agreement they made some years ago, when, at the dedication of the famous statue "The Christ of the Andes," the two nations swore to maintain everlasting peace.

For twenty years the idea of a common American destiny and fraternal relationship has been fostered and guided by a voluntary union known as the International Bureau of the American Republics. This Pan-American Bureau, as it was originally called, the concrete result of the first international American conference, held in Washington in the year 1890, has come to clearly represent the ideas and desires of nearly two hundred millions of people, living under twenty-one different national names, to establish and maintain among themselves and their respective governments cordial friendship, everlasting peace, and more profitable commercial and social intercourse.

Established when the suspicions of the republics of the southern continent had begun to take definite form against the alleged imperialistic designs of the English-speaking North American republic, this voluntary union has come to stand for equality among all the nations of the American hemisphere, for fraternity, common understanding, and peace. It has gone a great way toward justifying, demonstrating, and making intelligible to the world the real spirit of the Monroe Doctrine.

Last month the most important event in the history of the Bureau occurred in Washington. With impressive ceremonies, in which the President of the United States, the Secretary of State, and the most eminent statesmen and diplomats of the two continents participated, the future home of the Bureau was dedicated. This building, a splendid marble palace, made possible chiefly



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HON. JOHN BARRETT

(Director of the International Bureau of American Republics)

OF THE BUREAU OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS, DESIGNED BY MRS. PAULDING FARNHAM

through the munificence of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, with generous contributions from all the nations represented in the Bureau, is a fine piece of architecture, embodying in its form and decorations many of those historic concepts and artistic ideals that are nearest and dearest to the Latin-American heart. A typical patio forms the center of the building, and in it is an artistic fountain modeled on the lines of Aztec sculpture. Statuary and interior decorations represent typical scenes in the history of North and South American nations. The whole artistic effect is Latin-American. There is, besides the libraries and reading rooms, a fine Hall of the American Republics, in which future international conferences and other important diplomatic gatherings will be held. It is certain to become the center of Pan-American ideas, and to remain a visual, tangible evidence that the governments and peoples of the Western Hemisphere have attained a common understanding and are working for continental fraternity and peace.

As a distributing center for information of every conceivable kind to the governments and peoples represented, through its library, its special publications, and its handsomely illustrated, excellently edited periodical, the *Bulletin,* the Bureau has rendered a great service in binding closer the relations between the republics and in helping to formulate a strong Pan-American public opinion.

The Bureau is governed by the diplomatic representatives of all the nations having part in its work and is supported by their contributions. The American Secretary of State is always the chairman of the board. For the past three years it has been under the directorship of Mr. John Barrett, a diplomat and administrator who has been tried and proven by more than one difficult public task in widely separated parts of the world. It is to Mr. Barrett's ability, vigor, and far-sighted management that the Bureau chiefly owes its present efficiency. He has been more than an administrator; thanks in a large measure to his far-seeing imagination and patient diplomacy, the Bureau of the American Republics has become the medium through which is made known the common ideals of the American continent.

THE NEW HOME OF THE "PAN-AMERICAN BUREAU" IN WASHINGTON, DEDICATED LAST MONTH

ONE OF THE GATEWAYS TO SOUTH AMERICA—THE WATER FRONT, RIO DE JANEIRO

(Showing a portion of the Avenida Beira-Mar, a six-mile boulevard skirting the bay)

SOUTH AMERICAN PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS

BY ALBERT HALE

[Dr. Hale is unusually well equipped to prepare the following article. He has studied Spanish and Spanish-American conditions at first hand for years. His books, "The South Americans" and "A Practical Guide to Latin-America," have come to be recognized as authorities in Latin-America, as well as in the United States. He is a member of the Geographical Society of Rio de Janeiro and special compiler of the International Bureau of the American Republics. This article was written in Guatemala City, Guatemala, late in March, while Dr. Hale was on his way home from the recent Pan-American Sanitary Conference, at which he represented the International Bureau. Dr. Hale is a traveler of wide reputation.—THE EDITOR.]

IN 1810 the South American colonies of Spain resolved to be free from European domination. They were fired by the passion of the French revolution; they were inspired by the successful example of the United States of North America, and with one accord, almost miraculous it would seem, the flame of independence burst out in Venezuela to the north and in Argentina to the south, with no cable or wireless or even fast mail steamers to bring the leaders in touch with one another. This flame had touched Ecuador the year before; what is now Colombia had had an uprising in Bogotá; discontent had led to violence in Bolivia and Chile, but they had not provoked a successful revolution. Just as in the United States it required the injustice against New England and the genius of George Washington to transmute ambition into success, so the love for liberty in South America required the fervent enthusiasm of Bolívar and the persistent heroism of San Martin to carry it into practical results.

Every schoolboy in the United States knows the material condition of his country in 1776. Then only a small fringe of land along the Atlantic coast had been explored and occupied; the West was a wilderness, not yet studied or understood, and indefinitely claimed by England, France, and Spain. The schoolboy knows, too, how this vast region was gradually settled by the new nation; how the West became civilized, and, finally, after struggles of many kinds, was brought into the Union and is to-day part and parcel of it.

Probably this same schoolboy does not remember so distinctly the disastrous panic of 1837. There was nothing glorious about that, but the episode gave opportunity for the wiseacres in and out of Congress to decry

THE BRIDGE OVER THE MAULE RIVER, CHILE

any effort by the nation to develop westward. They prophesied bankruptcy; they knew that civilization could never cross the Alleghanies, and they laughed at the folly of those who invested money in railroads or lands where the Indians were still chasing buffaloes. Chicago, Kansas City, Denver, and San Francisco are the active witnesses of the short-sightedness of such patriots. Look at what we have accomplished within seventy years!

A CENTURY OF SOUTH AMERICA

South America as well has in many ways conquered her wilderness, and all ten republics of that wonderful continent have a right to celebrate the centennial of their declaration of independence in 1910, because they indeed can boast that they, too, have been actuated by the restless spirit of Americanism. Brazil must not be omitted from any tale of progress, for she also has gone a long way toward opening the interior of the country to twentieth-century civilization. Therefore, taking South America as a whole, it is worth while to examine the results of one hundred years of freedom.

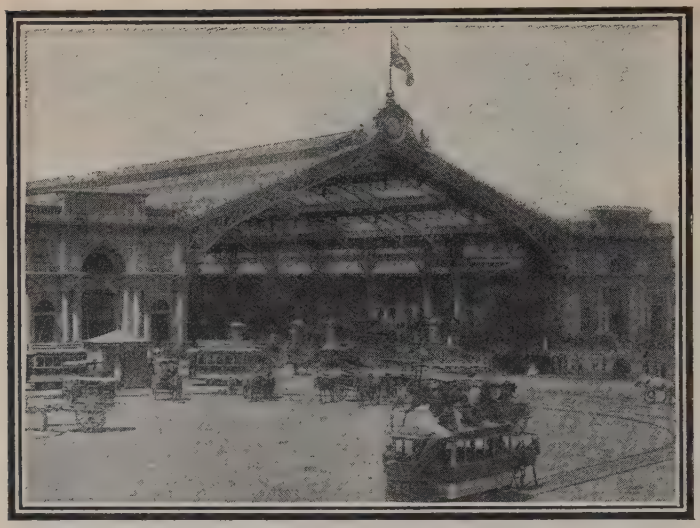
In 1810 there was, of course, no railroad or steamboat in all South America; but in 1851, just as the Michigan Southern was fighting to enter the city of Chicago, the first railroad was built in Chile, and plans were actually made to carry it across the Andes. In 1856 Brazil had a railway open to traffic, and Argentina was beginning to push the line, operated in 1853, indefinitely across her limitless prairies. There is now no republic in South America without at least one railroad, and some of the work done on them has excited the admiration of the whole world for the marvelous engineering problems solved in their construction. Actual mileage of road does not, however, tell the story of what has been accomplished. Although there are only 37,000 miles of railway in the whole continent (as many as Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois together), yet these few threads of modern industrial life have revolutionized travel on the southern continent and given access to as much useful territory as 100,000 miles of railway in the United States. Take, for instance, the one-time mysterious city of La Paz, the active capital of the republic of Bolivia. Its altitude is 12,300 feet; it was formerly as hidden as Lassa in Tibet, and the traveler was lost for weeks who dared to climb the rocky barriers beyond which it lay. But to-day two railways carry passengers from the west coast in less than forty-eight hours to this lofty interior; a third line is pushing northward from the frontier of Chile to bring La Paz closer yet to the Pacific, while a fourth road, advancing from Argentina, will soon place the city within 1500 miles of the Atlantic seaboard,—a miracle so marvelous as our first road to cross the Rockies, but

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE WHARF AT VALPARAISO, CHILE

performed so quietly that it is accepted without comment as part of the day's work. Quito in Ecuador, another stronghold of the aborigines, is now only six days from Panama, for the railway fills the gap in transportation which lately could be overcome only by a week's travel over hazardous paths on the patient mule. Bogotá in Colombia is reached in a day from the Magdalena River, and before the year is forgotten Asunción in Paraguay, five days by steamer up the river Paraná, will be linked to Buenos Aires by bands of steel.

GREAT ACHIEVEMENTS IN RAILROAD BUILDING

These are the extraordinary accomplishments in railroad building. The ordinary lines demonstrate an activity equaled only by our pioneer extension at home. Look at the Argentine Republic, with nearly 16,000 miles of railway, the country literally grid-ironed with lines reaching out into what a generation ago was a veritable wilderness. Into the northeast a line runs through the forests, with ultimate destination at the Brazilian frontier; toward the north, paralleling the River Plate, are splendid systems of transportation tapping the rich agricultural regions beyond Rosario, the focal point in Argentina, like Chicago in the United States, for the northwest. Toward the west passenger and freight trains go back and forth to the edge of the Chilean Andes as regularly as between St. Paul and Seattle, while toward the southwest, even beyond Bahia Blanca, the settlements and their consequent productive energy demand more facilities than can be supplied. Brazil has different problems to face, because her interior, unlike that of Argentina, lies on higher levels behind the mountain ridge that outlines her coast; but the republic of Brazil, not content with short lines from the seaports, has constructed a magnificent railway into the heart of Minas Geraes, the Texas of the nation, and has encouraged contractors to build to the south an American railroad through the almost virgin country of Paraná and Santa Catarina, which is intended to make the government independent of traffic and travel by water. Chile has ambitions to complete her interior lines, so that, in addition to the growing commerce developing



THE CENTRAL RAILROAD STATION, SANTIAGO, CHILE

through local production and consumption between the natural divisions of the country, she may be entire mistress of her narrow inland valleys, which have hitherto been at the mercy of the unprotected water-front. The other republics can show results and projects quite comparable to those of the larger countries.

The crowning achievement of the century of independence is, however, the piercing of the Andes by a tunnel at an altitude of 10,000 feet. To-day this dream of the old empire builders of Argentina and Chile is an accomplished fact. No longer will it be necessary to climb into the region of perpetual snow in order to pass across the continent; no longer will the traveler who must make the journey be told that between May and November his only route lies through the Strait of Magellan, a stormy and disheartening voyage of ten days. The tunnel is now open and the remaining work is simple enough. It is planned to have the line of communication completed by May 25, 1910, so as on that date to celebrate appropriately the centenary of the natal day of independence in South America. A view of the entrance to the tunnel appears on the opposite page. It was opened on April 5.

The development of the railway in South

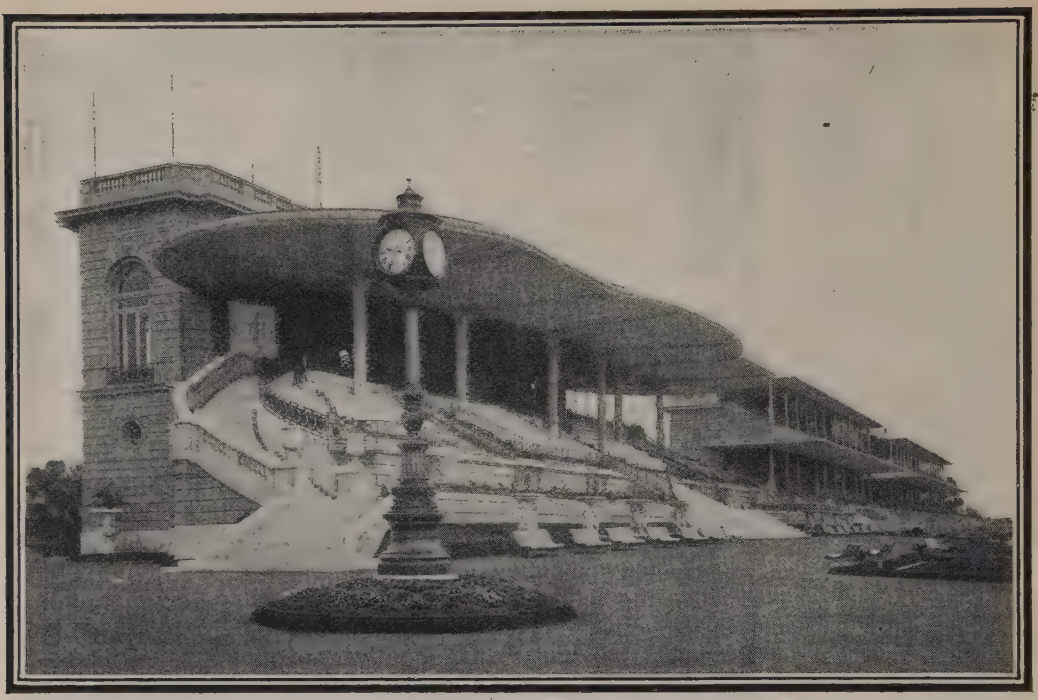
THE RAILROAD STATION, LA PLATA, ARGENTINA

America is a fascinating subject and should be closely studied by those who are interested in the wonderful changes taking place throughout the world. It always carries with it the helpful influences of civilization and commerce. That South America has profited by all that is best in modern life, therefore, cannot be doubted by those who know the characteristics of the progress in those republics during the last fifty years. Almost all of their commerce is oversea, for their products are of the riches so bountifully given them by a kind Nature, and they have therefore been obliged to import for their own immediate needs the more complicated output of Old World machinery. But there has been no lack of steamship connection with Europe, at least to accommodate this normal exchange of goods. English, German, French, Italian, Austrian, and Spanish lines ply regularly to the great ports on the Atlantic side of South America; with almost equal frequency other lines under the same flags continue the journey to the west coast and gather the riches of Chile, Peru, Bolivia, and Ecuador for home consumption, but, alas! the Stars and Stripes of our own country are seldom seen, and much of the trade that should belong to us has escaped because our merchant marine has dwindled to nothing during the last generation.

ENTRANCE TO THE TRANS-ANDEAN TUNNEL BETWEEN CHILE AND ARGENTINA, FORMALLY OPENED ON APRIL 5, 1910

COMMERCE AND IMMIGRATION

This foreign commerce of South America is indeed one of the marvels of the century just opening. Since the construction of the first railway in Chile, and from the time the first steamer touched at a port in Argentina, there has been a steady expansion in the shipment of natural products and the consumption of foreign goods. Within the last ten years, however, this growth has in some instances increased over 100 per cent., and is limited only by the capacity of vessels to carry it. The world could not to-day advance a step without the rubber of Brazil, the nitrate of Chile, the tin of Bolivia, the cacao of Ecuador, the copper of Peru, the quebracho of Paraguay, the chilled meats of the River Plate, or the wheat, the corn or the wool of Argentina. Europe is practically dependent upon these staples for the material well-being of her people. Brazil delivers annually $60,000,000 and more of rubber to the manufacturers of the world; the $50,000,000 of nitrates of Chile fertilizes half a continent, and the people of Texas, without knowing it, are wearing some of the export



THE HIPPODROME, IN BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA

of Argentine wool in their clothing or of her hides in their boots and shoes.

Statistics of this character are, however, bewildering, because the figures become so large and convey an idea only to the expert. They belong rather in trade and technical journals. The complaint can also be justly made that mere crude and material growth is no sincere guide to the progress of any continent or any republic. It is always the foundation of a nation, nevertheless, and civilization cannot be estimated without it. But there is another gauge which is familiar in the United States, and one which applies only to the newer lands of the Western Hemisphere. This test is that of immigration from the crowded Old World into the new. There is no emigration to Asia; Africa, although sparsely populated, attracts no settlers in the American sense of the word; in spite of the urgings and even commands of Germany her Kamarun is still empty; the early treck of the Boer is not imitated by either Dutch or English farmer. Australia and New Zealand fill up but slowly, and then chiefly with migration almost altogether from the British Isles. South America, on the other hand, has within recent years become in many ways a rival to the United States in the attractions offered there to the crowded and dispirited classes of Europe. Even those republics along the slopes of the Andes which had a prehistoric settlement, like Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, and Colombia, have vacant lands into which the Old World farmer is pushing his way; others, like Venezuela and the northern areas of Brazil, had introduced the negro as the laborer, and, being tropical as well, find that foreign blood comes in slowly, although their vacant spaces will soon be peopled when their riches are better known. The startling facts of immigration are therefore in Brazil from Rio de Janeiro to the west and south; in Uruguay, in Chile, and especially in the Argentine Republic, which is the Paradise of the foreigner.

Brazil in one year received about 100,000 immigrants, Uruguay absorbed 40,000 to 60,000, Chile has immense numbers of Germans filling up the southern section of the country, and many towns south of the beautiful longitudinal valley are as completely German as similar towns in Wisconsin. In Brazil there are 1,000,000 Italian settlers in the State of Minas Geraes, where much of the coffee is grown, but in addition this state has abundant unoccupied land, which is distributed to the new-comer for home building. São Paulo, the richest

A VINEYARD IN MENDOZA, ARGENTINA

state in Brazil, has many more Italians and Germans, but the State of Rio Grande do Sul, together with the less thickly populated States of Paraná and Santa Catarina, are sometimes called Little Germany, so thickly strewn are the villages of the 500,000 German colonists. In Uruguay much of the farm labor is done by Italians, who take to agriculture, leaving the cattle industry to the tougher native gaucho. Argentina has often received over 200,000 immigrants a year. These come from Spain, Italy, Portugal, Germany, Austria, or even Syria, in ever-increasing numbers. Some of them go back to their own land after a year's work in the harvest fields, but very many remain permanently to occupy and develop with European thrift the outlying acres towards which the

THRESHING WHEAT ON A LARGE ARGENTINE FARM

THE MUNICIPAL BUILDING AT QUITO, ECUADOR

newer railroads are stretching. All over their great southwest are hundreds of colonies founded by the self-interest or philanthropy of European men of affairs or theorists. Baron Hirsch has successfully established in community existence several colonies of his otherwise helpless protégés. Of the seven millions of inhabitants, which is about the total Argentina may report in a census at the end of her hundred years of independence, more than one-half are of South European origin; many of these have arrived within the last two generations, but all have found homes in a new land, and are proud to enroll themselves as citizens of an American republic. They form good citizens, too. They may bring with them on occasions useless ideas of economy, or wild notions of socialistic emancipation, but they are settlers, home builders, anchoring themselves as securely in South America as their confrères from the same shores or others from more northern countries of Europe become rooted in the United States. These millions of energetic and productive immigrants in the various republics created by the struggle for liberty one hundred years ago are acknowledged, even by the older inhabitants of the Spanish and Portuguese conquest, to be the life of the industrial development that has characterized South America during recent times.

MANUFACTURING AND BUILDING

South America has not advanced with such startling rapidity in the productive arts as has North America, but the beginning of the new century shows results of which these countries may well be proud. Factories of modern structure, turning out machine goods of most diverse character, can be found in every republic of the continent. Brazil is to-day reducing her importation of cotton cloth by the utilization, close to the fields, of her wonderful resources of raw cotton; the exportation of the finished woods of the hardly penetrated forests is becoming an industry from many a seaport; and the millions of head of live stock, spread from the south of Chile to the Caribbean Sea are supplying the raw material for factories of beef extract, of chilled meats, of chemical by-products, of shoes, clothing and the higher grades of textiles. Buenos Aires alone numbers factories by the thousands, and in this Paris

SHIP WITH SUPPLIES FOR THE MADEIRA-MAMORÉ RAILWAY

(This steamer is one of the fleet which steams 2000 miles up the Amazon and 500 miles up the Madeira, and comes direct from New York)

DOCKS AND GRAIN ELEVATORS AT BUENOS AIRES

of America there is scarcely an article of daily need which is not manufactured at home, although the finer qualities are still brought in from abroad.

MODERNITY OF LATIN-AMERICAN CITIES

The international exhibition to be held this year in Buenos Aires, capital of the Argentine Republic, in commemoration of the centennial anniversary of the declaration, is modestly called a Railway and Transportation Exhibit. This is not a broad enough term, although the scope of the program is so comprehensive as to include everything that rightly pertains to industry, commerce, and the active manifestations of modern life. Consequently there is opportunity for the appropriate display of any feature of material civilization. The traveler will find a visit to Buenos Aires this summer, on that account, well worth the novel experience of steaming south across the equator instead of east to the better known capitals of Europe. He will find accommodations quite as comfortable as those offered by transatlantic liners, but in vessels of lesser speed; he will be astonished at the activity of the ports passed in the journey, but most of all will he wonder at the material beauty and industrial energy of the city in which the exposition is to be held.

The municipality of Buenos Aires will have its own exhibit, but this will not take into account the indescribable attractiveness of the largest city in the southern hemisphere. Here alone is an object-lesson of the progress and accomplishment of South America. The business and social life there is equaled only by that of London, Paris, or New York. The luxury and display are exceeded not even by these capitals. But what is seen in the metropolis of Argentina by no means exhausts the astonishment of the individual who for the first time becomes really interested in our sister continent. There is no place in the exhibition for illustration of the development of genuine civilization in these cities of South America, but in their way they express even better perhaps than railways and transportation all that is to the credit of these ten republics celebrating a natal day. Manaos, 1000 miles up the Amazon, is as modern as Kansas City. Rio de Janeiro, which the traveler on the way down must pass, with its magnificent Avenida Central, its beautiful harbor just nearing completion at a cost of $50,000,000, can put to the blush many a city of the Old or the New World for the excellence of its civic progress. If this traveler is wise, he will not be content with the exhibition alone, but will cross the Andes and learn further lessons from such cities as Santiago and Valparaiso in Chile, and Lima in Peru. They all manifest the spirit of the twentieth century with as much vigor as our cities dis-

A VIEW OF THE COFFEE CARRIERS AT THE WHARF AND DOCKS OF SANTOS, BRAZIL

play, and as a rule they are far more beautiful, surprising as the statement may appear to the untraveled North American.

Even these material advances do not cover all that South America has to show for herself at the end of her first century of republican life. Two important elements on the intellectual side strengthen the respect which we of North America must justly pay our sister nations. Out of the courtesy of the Latin character, which every one who has ever lived in touch with it enthusiastically acknowledges, and out of the poetry of their nature, which is still a very vital force, has grown an admiration for education which is to-day finding practical expression in the school system of all countries. In most republics education is compulsory, and though it is not in all cases enforced, yet one's admiration cannot be withheld at the worthy state of the child's present culture, compared with that of twenty years ago. In the matter of higher education, such as marks the general culture of the aristocracy, the social life of any capital, the attainments of their lawyers, their physicians, and their public men, bear witness that we could often emulate them to advantage. This subtle combination of art and manners has resulted likewise in a growing love for the principles of arbitration. Let not the scoffer who retains the comic-opera tradition of revolutions have the only word. South America has recently shown a tendency almost without parallel to submit international differences to impartial courts of law. The famous

THE HARBOR OF CALLAO, PERU

THE EXPOSITION PALACE, LIMA, PERU

Acre dispute between Brazil and Bolivia, in which the latter relinquished a huge territory to the former on payment of a reasonable sum of money, is a fine example. Plenty of other instances can be recalled, and a long list can be furnished of boundary disputes still pending, concerning which there is no question whatever but that the results of the arbitration will be immediately and absolutely accepted by both nations concerned.

SOUTH AMERICA'S MAGNIFICENT FUTURE

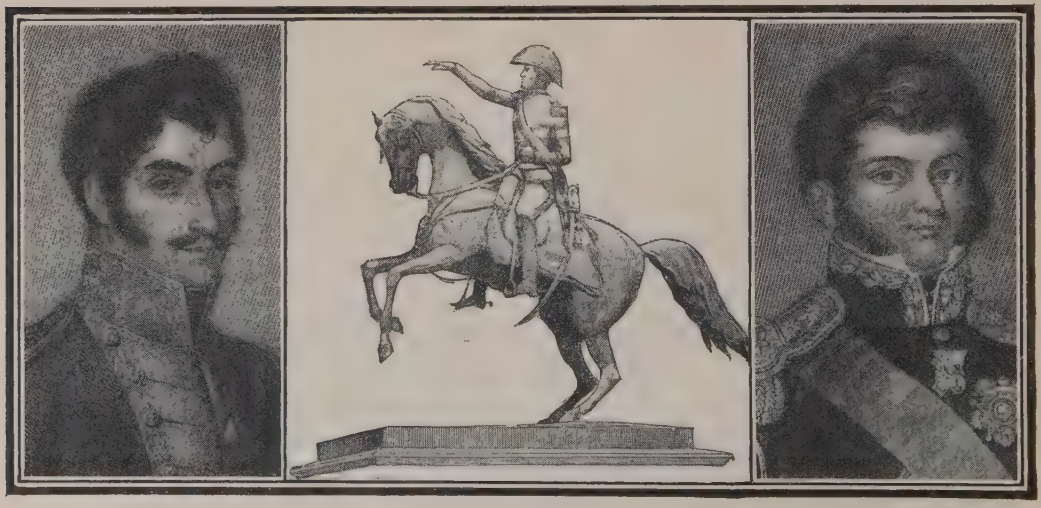
These signs of progress in South America are facts. They are moreover only indicative of what the future will bring forth. Abuses exist, of course, as in our own country, and will be corrected in a way best suited to the Latin character. We in the United States have not reached perfection by any means, and have even begun, if some rather gloomy philosophers are to be believed, to degenerate. This is ridiculous pessimism, but it conceals the truth that we must conserve our resources if we are to escape the unfortunate overcrowding and overproduction of Old World peoples. The republics of South America are, however, entirely free from any such danger. They have a new century before them and but few restraining traditions behind them. No creditable estimate can be made of the almost illimitable resourcefulness of their virgin lands. They have the precious and useful metals in abundance; they have extensive forests of woods which the governments, taking lessons from us, are beginning to save with scientific care. If coal is not plentiful, they have an inexhaustible source of energy in their rivers which traverse the interior of the continent and which engineering skill is already beginning to utilize. And finally they have prairie lands for grain and pasture for cattle from which sufficient food can be furnished to the world for generations to come, even if the United States and Canada consume their output within their own borders. The 50,000,000 inhabitants of South America, spread over an area twice the size of the United States, can produce almost acre for acre what we can, and many other things besides. When the continent gets into the full swing of industrial life, which will happen long before the century is completed, those of us who are optimists will be glad that we had the wisdom to foresee the manifest destiny in our sister republics to the south.

One condition must be explained, however, before the marvelous progress of the first century of South American independence is understood. This has not been altogether due to the initiative and labor of the Latin. The Anglo-Saxon should be credited with his share in the material de-

ONE OF THE BUSY SPOTS AT PORTO VELHO, THE TERMINUS OF THE NEW MADEIRA-MAMORÉ RAILWAY

(This was until recently an untouched forest inhabited by birds and wild beasts)

velopment of the continent. He has built the railroads, he has devised the splendid harbor improvements into which his ships are directed, he has helped to till their fields and to stock their grazing land. The Latin, lacking the directing force to overcome many of the obstacles of nature, has ably supported the Anglo-Saxon by the enthusiasm and poetry of his imagination. So it will be in the years to come. To quote the ideas of one of the wisest men of South America, "The Latin needs the Anglo-Saxon; the two natures, while superficially manifesting a racial antagonism, yet are coming more and more to work in harmony." When the two races shall have become blended, as will undoubtedly take place in the growing intimacy of American civilization, we may expect a new genius who will make of South America what Humboldt one hundred years ago promised it would be, one of the world's granaries and one of its centers of culture.



BOLIVAR SAN MARTIN O'HIGGINS

THE LIBERATORS OF SOUTH AMERICA

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THE CENSUS BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D. C.

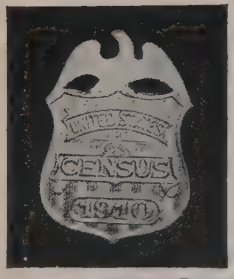
(This building, mostly one story only, has about two acres of floor space. Two other large buildings are also used during the special decennial census work)

TAKING THE CENSUS OF 1910

BY E. DANA DURAND

(Director of the Census)

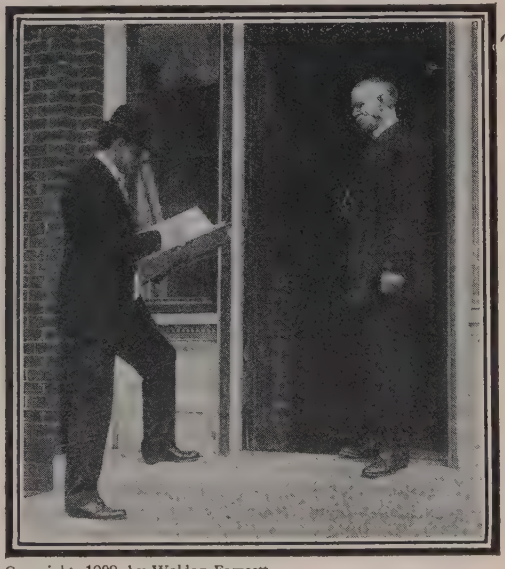
AS this magazine reaches its readers the work of taking the decennial census of the United States will be in full swing. Begun throughout the country on April 15, the enumeration of the cities will be completed by May 1 and that elsewhere by May 15. The work is being done by an army of not less than 70,000 enumerators, an average of about one to 1300 inhabitants. The enumerators work under the direction of supervisors, of whom there are 330. During May there will pour into the Census Office about 125 tons of schedules, containing the names and characteristics of approximately 90,000,000 people, and presenting the principal facts regarding the business of six or seven millions of farms. Approximately 3500 clerks will seize upon these schedules and begin immediately the work of tabulation. Within four or five months they will have ascertained the



Photograph by Waldon Fawcett

THE ENUMERATORS' BADGE

(Each of the 70,000 enumerators will wear one of these badges as an evidence of his authority)



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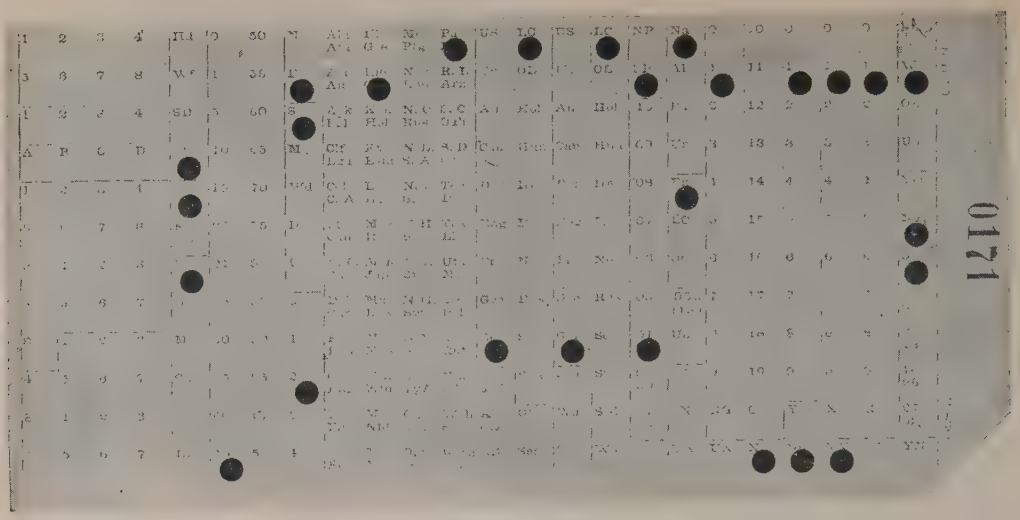
AN ENUMERATOR AT WORK

(The enumerator must visit every building or apartment in his prescribed district. He carries his schedules in a large pasteboard portfolio)



A CENSUS CARD

(One of these is punched for every person. The numbered spaces to the left indicate the place of residence. The other "fields" describe the person's characteristics. Thus the next column contains three fields, for relationship to head of family, sex, and color)

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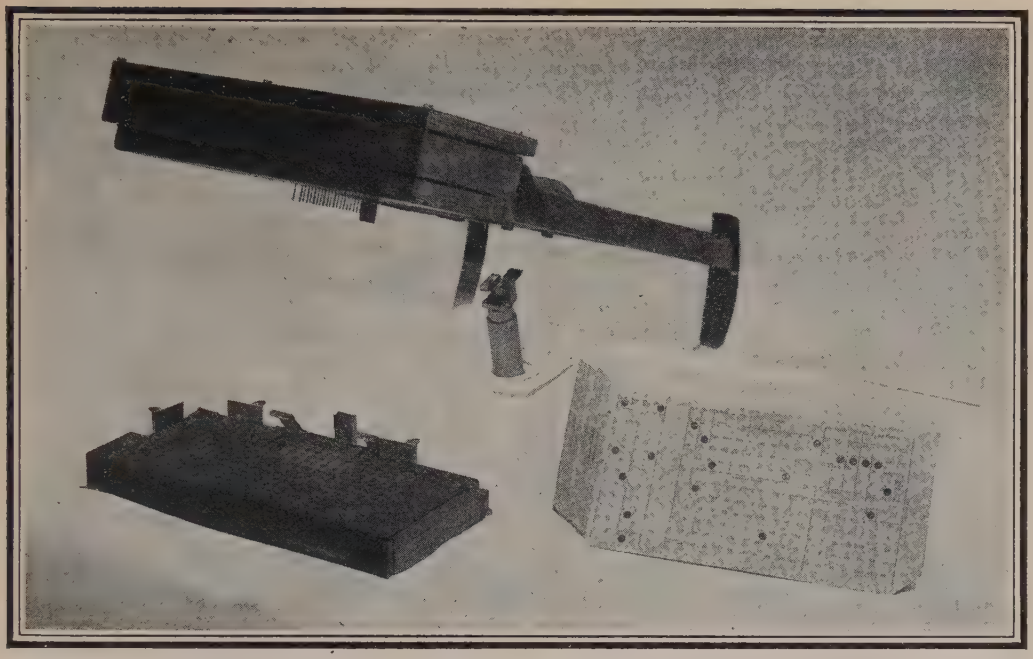
CARD-PUNCHING MACHINE

(Three hundred of these machines will be used for punching the population cards. This shows the rear, the keyboard on which the operator is playing being on the other side. From the pile of cards shown at the bottom, one at a time is fed in. The keys, by means of the slanting rods shown in the picture, set punches, which in turn make the necessary holes in the cards. The clerk is reading from a population schedule the items to be punched. A clerk can punch from 1500 to 2500 cards a day)

number of people in the country, and within about two years all of the details of the census will have been compiled and published.

The census of the United States is the largest and most expensive single statistical enterprise in the world. In no other country which regularly takes a census, except Russia, are there so many people to be enumerated. In no other important census-taking country, except Russia, is the population so sparsely distributed. The number and complexity of the interrogatories are far greater than in the census of any other country of the world. The necessity of completing the enumeration of the population and the farms within the short space of one month explains the need of such an army of enumerators.

In addition to the census of population and the census of agriculture, which are taken by the



PIN BOX AND MERCURY CUPS OF HAND TABULATING MACHINE

(These are the most significant parts of the tabulating machine. The card is placed on the flat standard below and the pin box above is then brought down. Where there is no hole in the card the pins, which are on springs, are pushed backward and make no contact. Where there is a hole the pins pass through into the mercury below (shown in part of the little cups in the illustration) and make an electric contact which operates the counters)

enumerators under the direction of the supervisors, a census is also being taken of manufactures, mines, and quarries. This covers the results of business for the year 1909. The returns are collected through special agents, about 1600 in number. These were selected by competitive examination, a departure from the method employed at previous censuses. The canvass of the manufacturing and mining establishments covers several months, and will be substantially completed by July 1.

CHANGES IN THE CENSUS SCHEDULES

Very considerable changes have been made, or will be made, at the present census with respect to the scope of the inquiries and the methods of conducting the canvass and tabulating and publishing the returns. Each decennial census has in fact shown marked changes as compared with its predecessors. These changes have been in part the necessary result of the growth of the population and the increased complexity of our national life. The experience of each census, moreover, has afforded the basis for devising new methods to insure accuracy and effect economy, as well as new methods of analyzing the returns, so as to secure a clearer and more complete view of their significance.

By far the most important branch of the census is the enumeration of the population. Back in 1790, when the first census was taken, the only questions asked were the name of the head of the family and the number of persons of each sex and color in his household, distinguishing slaves from free colored persons. Gradually the inquiries regarding population have been expanded, until now about thirty questions are asked regarding every man, woman, and child. A few interesting additions have been made to the schedules for the census of 1910.

CHANGES IN THE POPULATION SCHEDULE

The most important change in the population schedule consists in the addition of a question as to the nationality,—determined by mother tongue,—of our foreign-born inhabitants and of the foreign-born parents of the second generation born in this country. This mother tongue inquiry is supplemental to the previous inquiry of the country of birth. A large part of the immigration to

the United States during recent years has been from countries like Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Turkey, which contain a highly composite population. To report, for example, under one heading all persons born in Austria-Hungary, without distinguishing such radically different nationalities as the Germans, Bohemians, Poles, Croatians, Magyars, and the like, is to present but a very imperfect view of the true character of our foreign-born population. Aside from the great scientific value of such distinctions of nationality, they are strongly demanded by the foreign-born themselves. A large delegation of representatives of the nationalities coming from Austria-Hungary came to Washington and protested most vigorously against being reported as born in Austria unless the additional fact regarding their nationality should be brought out.

Partly because of the recent public interest in " race suicide " much more attention will be given to family statistics at this census than at any preceding. In order to make possible more close analyses of the fecundity of the different classes of population, the schedule will distinguish for the first time between those married women who have been married only once and those who have been married two or more times. A study of the relation of the number of children born to the duration of marriage for those women who have been married only once will give much information which could not be secured when statistics were available only for all married women taken together. The census will furnish a broader basis of knowledge than has hitherto existed for determining how far the original American stock is holding its own.

Three other additions of considerable importance have been made to the population schedule at the present census. They are an inquiry concerning the industry in which each person is employed, supplementing the inquiry regarding the trade or profession which he pursues; an inquiry distinguishing employers, employees, and persons working

HAND TABULATING MACHINE

(One hundred of these machines will be used for tabulating population cards. A card from the pile shown at the right is placed under the pin box,—just to the left of the pile,—which is then brought down so that the pins pass through the holes in the card into the mercury cups, as shown more clearly in an other illustration. The counters are inside and not shown. At the right are rolls of paper on which the counters print the results. A skilled operator can tabulate about 25,000 cards per day)

on their own account; and an inquiry whether the person was out of work on the census day, April 15. These changes should add materially to our knowledge regarding the economic status of the people.

CHANGES IN THE AGRICULTURAL AND MANUFACTURES SCHEDULES

The inquiries regarding agriculture are of necessity extremely numerous. Even a single farm of the type prevalent in the northern States presents a somewhat complicated organization. When it is necessary to cover by the same schedule the conditions on such farms and also conditions on truck farms, poultry farms, fruit farms, cattle ranches, and a dozen other specialized types of farms throughout the country, the schedule necessarily becomes lengthy. Indeed, eager as the Bureau has been to reduce the work of the enumerators, it has nevertheless been forced to make the agricultural schedule for 1910 a little longer than that for 1900, though it is simpler in arrangement. The changes in detail are too numerous to mention.

The most important modifications are those by which it is sought to secure greater accuracy in eliminating the duplication in values of farm products due to the consumption of hay and grain produced on the farm as feed for animals, which in turn produce or themselves become a source of income. The adoption of a plantation schedule for use in Southern States is also a significant innovation. On many plantations, although the land is let out in parcels to negro share tenants, the owners retain practically complete management of the farming operations, so that the tenants have no more actual independence in their work than hired laborers. The economic status of such tenants is in no way comparable with that of the tenant farmers in the North, who usually assume full responsibility for the conduct of the farm. At the last census no regard was paid to the plantation as such, but the land operated by each of these supervised tenants was treated as an independent farm. At the present census, in addition to securing a schedule for each tenant farm, information concerning the plantation as a whole will be obtained on a special schedule.

The changes in the schedules for manufactures and mines have been chiefly condensations. The object has been, by reducing the amount of detail required, to enable the persons who furnish the statistics and the special agents who collect them to devote greater care to the returns of the more fundamental facts. There is a great temptation, where an undue amount of detail is asked, to avoid work by giving estimates instead of actual bookkeeping figures. It is believed that the new manufactures and mining schedules can be filled from actual books in but a fraction of the time that would have been necessary to answer the interrogatories of 1900 by the same method.

Additions to or modifications in the subject matter of the census are, however, far less important than increase in accuracy. The great problem of census work is to secure correct returns in the first instance. Any degree of efficiency in methods of tabulation or acumen in methods of analysis can avail nothing if the original data are full of errors.

HOW THE ENUMERATORS ARE SELECTED

The great importance of the selection of competent enumerators thus becomes evident. Many people fancy that the enumerator has an easy job. As a matter of fact, to enumerate the population and farms even reasonably well requires a rather high order of intelligence. Difficult questions of judgment are constantly arising, notably with reference to the fundamental question who should and who should not be enumerated, under the rule, peculiar to American census practice, requiring every one to be counted at his usual place of abode instead of at the place where he actually was found on the census day.

I believe that the great majority of the enumerators at the present census are intelligent men and women. They were subjected so far as possible to a practical examination, consisting of the filling out of actual schedules of population and agriculture from descriptions of typical families and farms. A similar examination was held in 1900, but at that time the candidates received the test papers by mail and could fill them out at leisure; nor was there any other evidence than the candidate's statement that he had received no assistance. The examination at the present census was conducted with due precautions to prevent collusion and to assure each candidate an equal footing.

More than 200,000 candidates took the examination. The papers were rated in the first instance by the supervisors, but the papers of those recommended for appointment were re-examined in Washington, and also a sufficient number of the papers of those not recommended, to determine whether the supervisor had acted fairly in making selections.

In all the large cities and in many of the other supervisors' districts throughout the country all, or practically all, of the enumerators actually appointed had succesfully passed this examination. There were, of course, some enumeration districts in which no candidate successfully passed and others where the successful candidate subsequently declined, so that altogether a few thousand out of the 70,000 enumerators either received less than the passing grade or did not take the examination at all. The limits of time quite precluded the possibility of a second examination. Moreover, the persons appointed in a large majority of cases appear to have passed the examination better than any one else in their respective districts. The supervisors were permitted for proper reasons to make exceptions to the rule of appointing the candidate graded the highest, but they were instructed to disregard political considerations altogether, and the indications are that most of them carried out their instructions fairly.

ADVANCE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHEDULES

One of the principal difficulties which the census encounters is the ignorance of many people concerning its purpose and scope and their consequent indifference or even hostility to the enumerators. Some of the foreign-born especially are afraid that the census may be an instrument for taxation, for army or jury service, or for deportation under the immigration laws. The Census Bureau has conducted a very extensive campaign of publicity to remove these misapprehensions and to prepare the people of all classes to meet the enumerator half way. The President himself issued a proclamation urging the duty of every citizen to co-operate with the census and assuring all that no possible injury could come from answering the questions. This proclamation has been translated into twenty-four languages and posted in every post office and also widely elsewhere.

The most important method, however, of disseminating information regarding the census has been by the use of advance schedules. Through the courtesy of the Post Office Department a copy of the agricultural schedule was sent before April 15 to every farmer in most parts of the country, and he was asked to fill it up and hold it until the call of the enumerator. In the large cities the enumerators were required to distribute an advance population schedule to every family, and the head of the family was requested to fill it up in advance of the enumerator's visit. This method of advance schedules, which is an innovation in the United States, although extensively used abroad, not only serves to familiarize the people with the census inquiries and to open their doors to the enumerators, but it is believed that so far as the advance schedules are actually filled up they will increase the accuracy of the information, because they can be prepared at leisure instead of during the haste of the enumerator's visit. It is hoped that the greater proportion of the farmers will make out the advance farm schedule and a considerable proportion of the people in the cities the advance population schedule.

HOW THE POPULATION RETURNS ARE TABULATED

The task of tabulating the great mass of population statistics within a reasonable length of time would be substantially impossible were it not for modern machine methods. The machines to be used at the census of 1910 rest on the same general principles as those used in 1900, and to some extent even in 1890, but great improvements have been made, so that the work can be done much more cheaply and rapidly than ever before.

The necessity for elaborate machinery lies in the fact that the different characteristics of the population must be presented in various combinations with one another. Were it necessary merely to count the number of persons who possess each given characteristic, without reference to their other characteristics, the tabulation would require either no machinery or at the most exceedingly simple machinery. To illustrate: Suppose the facts recorded regarding each individual are sex, color, native or foreign birth, marital condition, and age. Obviously only the simplest of systems would be necessary to count the number of males and the number of females, the number of whites and the number of colored, the number born in the United States and the number born abroad, the number married, single, or widowed, and the number of each age. When, however, it is desired to know these facts in combination,—for example, to know how many white males, born abroad, of a given age, are married; or how many colored persons, born in the United States, of a given age, are single,—much more complex methods of tabulation become necessary. As a matter of fact, the number of subjects covered is far greater than those

named. There are indeed several thousands of combinations of facts which have to be presented.

NINETY MILLIONS OF PUNCHED CARDS

In order to do this work economically, the system of punched cards is employed. For each of the approximately 90,000,000 persons a separate card is prepared. Each card has spaces by which every possible characteristic of the individual disclosed by the census schedules can be shown. It has, for example, one space for male and another for female; another set of spaces (called a "field") distinguishing white, negro, mulatto, Indian, and Chinese; another giving the possible years of age; another the possible countries of birth, and the like. A small round hole is punched, indicating the proper fact with regard to each person, in each of these fields. By running these cards through tabulating machines, which make electric contacts through the holes punched, the facts regarding population can be recorded in any desired series of combinations.

The card-punching machine which will be used at the present census differs radically from that used in 1900. It resembles somewhat a typewriter or an adding machine. The machine has a keyboard of 240 labeled keys, arranged in precisely the same order as the spaces on the card. The clerk, with the population schedule before her,—for most of the punching work is done by women,—depresses the proper key in each field, thereby setting a punch in readiness to operate at the corresponding space. After all the necessary keys have been depressed a button is touched and the card, which has previously been automatically fed into the machine, is thrust upwards and all the holes are punched at the same time. By a convenient little device the cards for males are automatically discharged into one compartment and those for females into another. Three hundred of these punching machines will be operated, night and day, by two shifts of clerks. Each clerk can turn out from 1500 to 2000 cards in seven hours, and it is expected that the entire 90,000,000 cards will be punched within 100 days.

TOTAL POPULATION ASCERTAINED BY OCTOBER

The first fact which every one wishes to ascertain from the census is the number of people, regardless of all distinctions, in each community and in the country as a whole. Aside from the merely popular interest in a prompt report of the number of inhabitants, that report must be in the hands of Congress at its winter session as a basis for the new apportionment of representatives.

Consequently the first thing done with the cards after they have been punched will be merely to count them, without taking off other information. A very simple, but very efficient, new machine has been devised for this count. It consists of little more than a set of rolls between which the cards pass, the separation of the rolls by the thickness of the cards operating to turn counter wheels. The cards are picked off automatically, one by one, from the bottom of a pile. Cards can be whirled through these rollers at a speed of 500 or 600 a minute. Allowing for stoppages, four of these machines, operating in two or three shifts, will be able to count from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 cards a day. The counting will proceed step by step with the punching, so that within a day or two after the last card has been punched the Census Bureau can give out the correct population of the United States. This will be not later than October 1, and for many individual States and cities the data will be published several weeks earlier.

SORTING THE CARDS

There remains, however, the far more complicated task of counting the characteristics of the population. This is done by tabulating machines. In order, however, to avoid the use of too large a number of counters on the tabulating machines, or the necessity of running the cards through these machines an excessive number of times, the cards themselves must first be sorted according to the principal classifications, such as sex, color, and nativity. As already stated, the separation by sex is made automatically in the operation of the punching machines. Other separations are made by passing the cards through electrical sorting machines, the holes in the cards determining into what groups they go.

At the census of 1900 no separate sorting machine was used in the population work, though towards the end of the tabulation of the agricultural statistics such machines were introduced. The sorting of the population cards at that time was done by an attachment to the tabulating machines, consisting of various compartments with lids, which were automatically opened so that the cards could be dropped into the proper compartments by the hand of the operator after being tabu-

lated. In other words, at each "run" of the cards for one series of tabulations, the cards were sorted in preparation for the next "run." This method, however, was far less expeditious than the use of special sorting machines. In these machines, as the card is automatically fed forward between rollers, an electric brush or point presses against it, waiting to discover a hole. At the same time that the card is moving forward a set of chutes is moving upwards until the instant when the brush strikes the hole, whereupon the motion of the chutes is arrested by the electric wave, and the proper chute stands ready to receive the swiftly flying card. Each of these sorting machines can handle about 300 cards a minute.

TABULATING THE CARDS

The cards are now ready to pass through the tabulating machines for the final counting of population facts. Two kinds of machines will be used. In one the cards are fed in by hand, and a skilled operator can tabulate about sixty a minute. In the other they are fed automatically over a drum at the rate of 300 or more a minute. The automatic machine is the most recent development in census tabulating machinery, and had it been perfected earlier much of the work of the hand machines could have been dispensed with, though, in cases where readings must be taken very frequently, the hand machines are almost, if not quite, as economical.

Whether in the hand machine or in the automatic, the counters are operated by means of electrical contacts made through the punched holes. The machines are so wired that facts can be counted in combination with one another. Thus, it is possible to count at the same time facts with regard to age and marital condition, so as to show, for instance, on one counter the number of married persons from twenty to twenty-five years of age, on another those from twenty-five to thirty, and on others the number of single persons of these two age periods. Each machine in fact is provided with a large number of counters; as many as sixty counters will be used in certain "runs." Even thus, however, it would be quite impossible to count all the manifold combinations of items at a single "run" of the card. Each card on the average must be passed through the tabulating machines five or six times. In other words, the work is equivalent to tabulating approximately 500,000,000 cards.

Even the hand machines used at the present census are much more rapid than those of ten years ago. In 1900 the counters used consisted of dials, from each of which the results for each county or other unit of presentation had to be read by the eye and taken down on sheets of paper. The present machines are so arranged that the results on all the counters can be printed at the same time by merely pressing a button. This change absolutely prevents errors, which frequently arose in the reading of the dials, and also greatly economizes clerical labor.

Space will not permit a description of the methods for tabulating the agricultural and manufactures statistics. The work will be done mainly by adding machines of the ordinary type,—though some of these are wider than those ordinarily used in commercial work,—and by the recently developed typewriter adding machines, which practically consist of a typewriter with adding attachment.

IS THE CENSUS WORTH THE COST?

The total cost of the census proper, including the publication of the returns, will be approximately $13,000,000. This seems like an immense outlay for mere statistics, but when the comprehensive character of the census and the elaborateness of the information which is secured are borne in mind the expenditure of less than fifteen cents per inhabitant for this work will appear by no means extravagant. The census statistics furnish a great mine of facts regarding the social and industrial conditions of the country. They are the constant reliance of statesmen, economists, social reformers, and students of public and social conditions generally. Without a periodical stock-taking, such as the decennial census, Uncle Sam would be almost as much at sea as a merchant or manufacturer who takes no inventory and keeps no accounts.

THE DOOM OF THE OLD "MACHINE" CONVENTION

BY ROBERT S. BINKERD

(Secretary of the City Club of New York)

FOR two years Governor Hughes has made the question of the direct nomination of candidates for public office a leading issue in the State of New York. In theory both direct and indirect nominations rest upon the will of the voters of a party expressed at a "primary." In the indirect system the voters elect delegates to various conventions (State, county, city, Congressional, Senatorial, etc.), which nominate the candidates. In the direct system they vote directly for the men whom they wish their party to nominate.

In 1909 the New York Legislature appointed a commission of its members to investigate direct primary laws in various States. This commission, with perhaps two exceptions, was composed of men whose minds were already made up; who had already defeated Governor Hughes' direct primary bill of that year; and who are generally believed to have been interested mainly in securing testimony hostile to the direct primary system.

Nevertheless, in February, 1910, the commission reported to the New York Legislature: "That there is widespread and real demand for primary reform cannot be denied." Still, the commission was not for direct primaries. One of its reasons was: "Many eminent men have represented the people of this State in prominent positions, all of whom have been selected by the representative (convention) system."

THE CONVENTION SYSTEM NOT TRULY REPRESENTATIVE

Passing over the failure of the commission to comment on the general character of candidates selected by the "representative system" for positions not so prominent, the commission could have explained the "widespread and real demand for primary reform" had it amended the above sentence to read: "Many corrupt and unfit men have represented the people of this State in prominent and other positions, all of whom have been selected by the representative system."

For this so-called "representative system" has not been representative in New York State. For instance, in 1908 the Syracuse delegation to the Republican State Convention was solidly opposed to the renomination of Governor Hughes. A postal-card canvass conducted indiscriminately among enrolled Syracuse Republicans revealed the fact that nine-tenths of them wished the Governor renominated.

Democratic conventions have been even more unrepresentative. No impartial observer of the Democratic State Convention at Buffalo in 1906 would demand affidavits in support of the following statement by the late Senator Patrick H. McCarren,—hardly a radical reformer!—to the Kings County Democratic Committee on October 16, 1906:

> There were men (delegates) thrown out of the convention who had been for years leaders of the party in their respective counties. It was necessary to unseat a certain number of delegates, and they were unseated.

Not only have nominating conventions not been representative, but they cannot be made so. Public opinion, even among the enrolled members of a party, cannot express itself except where the issue is defined. Party organizations can seldom, if ever, be compelled to take a stand before the primaries to elect delegates to conventions.

The boss or organization having taken no stand prior to the primary, and having announced no policy there is no specific issue which can be made against the delegates proposed for election. The party membership is in the position of an individual compelled to give a power of attorney without knowing what will be done, and powerless to withdraw that power of attorney if its use is abused. At every step in the process of constituting nominating conventions machine leaders conceal their hand and thrive upon the consequent inability of the decent electorate to make any effective opposition. For this reason, however they may bow at times to overpowering public sentiment, nominating conventions are representative of the mass

of the voters only by chance. Such is now the situation in New York and other States.

DIRECT NOMINATIONS IN HALF THE STATES

So generally has this been true that in the past ten years the direct primary has become the more usual system * of making nominations in the United States, and in only one case has a city, a county, or a State,† turned back from direct nominations to the convention system. As early as 1860 the Republican voters of Crawford County, Pennsylvania, established direct primaries by party rule. From time to time the Democratic voters in Southern States did likewise. In 1899 the State of Minnesota enacted a direct-primary law for Hennepin County, which included Minneapolis. In 1901 it was extended. So the movement has grown,—mandatory laws quickly superseding optional laws, and State-wide measures superseding those applying only to certain localities or offices.

Of the thirty-one United States Senators elected in 1908, seventeen were nominated at direct primaries. Fifteen out of thirty-two Governors of States elected in 1908 were so nominated, as were a majority of the "insurgent" Republican Congressmen. To speak of direct nominations as a "dangerous experiment," as has been done in New York, is only to reveal our provincialism.

PARTY ORGANIZATIONS RETAINED

And those who fear the break-up of responsible party organization, or the coming of political anarchy, will be disappointed when the Hinman-Green direct-primary bill, now before the New York Legislature, is enacted into law. For with characteristic statesmanship Governor Hughes has not assumed that party organizations will go out of existence. Neither does he propose that they shall present candidates for nomination at the primaries in the underhanded method reported from some so-called "simon-pure" direct primary States. *The most important provision of the Hinman-Green bill simplifies the make-up of party organizations and gives them a legal, publicly exercised function of proposing candidates for nomination at the primaries.* But these proposals must be made from six to seven weeks in advance of the primaries, with ample opportunity for voters within the party to propose opposition candidates where those proposed by the party organization are unsatisfactory.

The beneficial effects of this provision will be many. In the first place, forcing the organization to reveal its hand before the primaries will of itself raise the level of candidacies,—because unfit proposals may be dissented from within the party, and not alone at the final election as at present, and then only by the desertion of the voter's party. In the second place, reasonably fit proposals will not generally be opposed, and the attention of the voters at the primaries will be concentrated upon the offices in regard to which there is a vital question of fitness or policy at stake. Lastly, the party committeemen who propose candidates for nomination will themselves come before the same primary for re-election to their party positions; and the action they have taken in proposing candidates for nomination will give the party membership a definite gauge of the members of the party organization,—a consummation devoutly to be wished.

In its other features the Hinman-Green bill follows the best laws of other States. Voters throughout the State must personally register and enroll if they wish to vote at a primary. Primaries will be "closed,"—that is, open only to voters who have previously enrolled with the party in question. Thus Republicans will not be able to participate in Democratic primaries, nor vice versa. Lastly, proper safeguards regarding corrupt practices will obtain at the primaries as well as on Election Day. When the Hinman-Green bill is enacted into law it will provide the best system of partisan direct primaries yet devised, and deserves hearty support.

But in my judgment the direct primary within national party lines is only a transition point in, or a stepping-stone to, the remedy of a fundamental defect in our electoral

* Twenty States and one Territory, with a total population of over 32,000,000, have *mandatory* laws *requiring* the use of this plan for selecting candidates of the principal parties for practically all offices: California, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin, Arizona. Three other States have *mandatory* laws covering practically all except the State offices: Minnesota, Ohio, Pennsylvania. Three other States have *mandatory* laws covering certain localities or offices: Indiana, Massachusetts, New Jersey. Eight States have *optional* laws covering practically all offices: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, South Carolina, Virginia. Party rules have established direct nominations for at least the majority party in nearly all the Southern States not mentioned above.

About one-half of the States, including those in which the system has been established by party rules, use direct nominations for practically all elective offices. The total population of those States which use the direct primary system in some form is about 60,000,000, or 81 per cent. of the entire population of the United States by the 1900 census.

† Montana.

machinery. That defect is the absence of proper machinery for the analysis of public opinion prior to election. This defect goes to the bottom of many of our political evils, and is little understood even by reformers.

HOW THE CONVENTION GAINED ITS POWER

As has already been stated, before public opinion can be expressed and a verdict rendered there must be a problem to solve and various methods of solution proposed by several candidates. In short, there must be an analysis before there can be a synthesis. Owing to conditions which have long since passed away, in the early days of American politics the absence of analyzing machinery was not noticeable. With changing times, however, Congressional caucuses stepped in and performed this necessary function for national candidates, and legislative caucuses did the same for State candidates. This continued until the struggle to gain the caucus nomination led to such underhanded and corrupt methods as to discredit the caucus results entirely. Then arose the revolt against "King Caucus," leading to the supplanting of the old Congressional and legislative caucuses by informal conventions of men having the same general point of view.

These conventions were purely voluntary; there was no party enrollment and no rigid parties; the formation of new parties was not at all difficult. In fact, the successful rise of the Republican party from 1856 to 1860 was made possible by these conditions.

But by the close of the Civil War most of our electorate had become accustomed to act with either the Republican or Democratic party; the war had embittered party feeling and had produced an economic exhaustion to cure which absorbed the brains of the country. The result was that candidates for public office were left to the party organization as never before. To secure an election it was necessary only to gain the nomination of the dominant national political party, particularly in local and State elections. Thus the entire effective political work lay in controlling the process whereby the dominant party set its stamp of approval upon candidates. Caucuses or primaries were regularly packed and dissenters thrown out of the window. Or they were called on insufficient notice, or in out-of-the-way places. The persistence of any considerable number of anti-organization voters was overcome by a series of postponements. Probably at no time in our history did so low a class of politicians have as complete control over candidates for public office as in the thirty years following the Civil War.

Some reform was bound to come as long as there were any decent citizens left. The inherent difficulty,—the failure of the State to provide an official sieve for the analysis of public opinion prior to election,—was not seen. The reformers thought the difficulty would be met by conferring a legal right upon voters after fulfilling certain party conditions to participate in party primaries. Slowly and in various ways the State stepped in and more or less officially adopted those voluntary parties as parts of the official electoral process. It established enrollment of voters; it prescribed the tests for party loyalty; it directed the time and place for holding primaries and the manner in which the results should be ascertained and preserved.

Some advance was thus made,—no matter how crude the method. Still, as I have already pointed out, the nominating conventions could not be made representative and the inside manipulators of party machinery had undue and unnecessary advantages. This naturally disgusted a large percentage of the enrolled voters of every party so that they would not attend the primaries and be pawns in a game. On the contrary, they began to demand a primary where the issue should be defined between candidates and where every enrolled voter could *directly* say whom he wished nominated by his party for each office.

Clearly such primaries mark another step in advance, inasmuch as they materially lessen the power of the organization to conceal its purpose from the affiliated voters of the party. But in local affairs the national partisan lines of division are unreasonable and vicious. The permanent division of the electorate into two standing armies makes for formalism and rigidity, whereas public opinion needs to be restored to the conditions of freedom which obtained in our early history. Therefore, the partisan direct primary does not provide the ultimately satisfactory machinery for the analysis of public opinion, at least for municipal, and I believe also for State elections. Beyond the partisan direct primary we must look for either a *non-partisan* direct primary or for a method of direct nomination by petition. It is most interesting and helpful to note in partisan direct-primary States like Massachusetts, Iowa, and Texas that the cities have already moved on to *non-partisan* direct primaries for the nomination of candidates for local office.

THE BURDEN OF WASTE IN PUBLIC EXPENDITURE*

BY MYRON T. HERRICK

IN the early days of the nation the rewards of ambition were sought in public service. The proponderance of the genius and the marked ability of the men of America were found in the service of the new republic. In the first years of the nation's history men thought less of riches and more of the honor to be gained by faithfully serving their country. The Washingtons, Hamiltons, Franklins, Adamses, Jeffersons, and Marshalls were engaged in the creation of a great nation destined to advance the cause of democracy throughout the world. Their patriotic devotion to their country was emulated by the most exalted and the humblest citizen.

Later, when the United States had become a living, dynamic organization, free from the danger of foreign complications, and its problems had become peculiarly domestic, public service lost some of its attractiveness for men of ability. As the country was developed, and its great possibilities were disclosed, the latent acquisitive spirit was awakened, and the men of the country turned to the making of money. The opportunities afforded for the accumulation of wealth were such as never before existed. Commercial and industrial enterprise provided such a wide scope for genius and ability that the majority of the best brains of the country were drawn to this absorbing field of human endeavor. As a result, private enterprises have received a tremendous impetus, while municipalities, the States, and the nation have suffered from the lack of well-trained, competent men to fulfill the duties of public service.

Because success in a business career is now so highly prized, business attracts the majority of the able men of the country. It is due to this fact that the United States excels the world in almost every line of commercial and industrial endeavor and that the organization of business in this country is unequaled anywhere, while politics has become largely a matter of spoils, and the administration of public business, to an amazing degree, has been left to the incompetent and dishonest. Many of those who have assumed the administrative functions of government are so poorly qualified for their duties, so devoid of high purpose, that the consequent extravagance and waste are appalling. This condition is not confined to any particular administration, nor to any one section of the country. It is as widespread as the nation, and characterizes the governments of municipalities, counties, States, and the nation. Nor can it be charged to any one political party, although the practice, established by Andrew Jackson, of changing government employees with every change in the complexion of the administration has had a most detrimental effect on the government service.

New York has been a striking example of a city operated by political rather than business methods. With a yearly revenue from taxation and other ordinary sources of $150,000,000, and with 60,000 employees, this city, until quite recently, did not know how much it owed, while, by placing the business of the city on a basis of favoritism rather than competition, a loss has been entailed estimated from $10,000,000 to $20,000,000 a year; and had I not read Mr. Cannon's admirable report to the Chamber of Commerce the other day, I would have asked for a certified accountant's report before bidding on its bonds.

New York City, which, since long before the days of Tweed, was admittedly in control of the Tammany machine, made many attempts to shake itself from the grasp of this organization, but it was only temporarily successful. At the present time, however, New York, which was an example of the system which the awakened conscience of the country now condemns, bids fair to be a conspicuous example of the correction of vicious methods. This result is due, primarily, to the aroused interest of the people in municipal affairs. One of the most potent agencies in stimulating this interest is the Bureau of Municipal Research, a most remarkable or-

* Address at the annual banquet of the National Metal Trades Association, New York, April 13, 1910.

ganization, created and supported by broad-minded, patriotic citizens, officered by men of unusual talent, whose purpose it is to secure constructive publicity in matters pertaining to municipal problems. It has been said of the organization:

> Some reforms are worth while and many of them are wasteful despite good intentions; but New York City has not undertaken any reform in a long while which is paying the taxed public as good dividends as are involved in the revision of the methods of keeping the accounts of the city through the efforts of the Bureau of Municipal Research.

In the last administration in the City of New York the Bureau of Municipal Research was given broad opportunity in most of the city departments. This co-operation between a private organization and public officials has done much to secure for New York the best practicable methods and policies. The press of New York has given so much publicity to the good that this bureau can accomplish that to deny its admission to any municipal department is equivalent to an acknowledgment of guilt. At the present time there is in New York the praiseworthy example of a Democratic Mayor working in harmony with the Board of Estimate, which is largely Republican, and filled with men of unusually high character, such as Prendergast, the Comptroller, and McAneny, the Borough President of Manhattan, and others, who have left more lucrative work to give their services to the public.

The experience of New York is not unique. The bonded indebtedness of American cities as a whole is increasing much more rapidly than municipal assets, and the taxes for operating expenses are becoming more burdensome each year. In 1902 the percentage of the revenue of all the cities in the country to their debt was 37.3. By 1909 this percentage was decreased to 25.9. The net public debt of forty-nine cities, including New York, increased 47.71 per cent. from 1899 to 1909, while during the same period the increase in the assessed valuation of all the taxable property in these cities advanced but 12.66 per cent. In cities above 300,000 in population the municipal expenditures increased 20 per cent. per capita from 1902 to 1907. If this increase continues, the pressure of taxation will soon become intolerable and credit exhausted.

In Chicago, Prof. Charles E. Merriam, at the head of a special council investigating committee, reports that nearly half of the water pumped by the city is wasted, while a very large percentage of the water rates are not collected. He asserts that his investigations will show an annual leakage in all departments of at least $7,000,000, or about one-third of the amount now required to run the city; and in this statement he is supported by a former chairman of the Finance Committee, who declares that he could save one-third of the annual budget if he could work without political interference.

The evidence is conclusive that in municipalities, counties, States, and the national Government itself there is a vast and growing amount of extravagance in the administration of public business.

Earnest efforts have been made by Presidents Roosevelt and Taft to bring about needed reforms in the Government's business methods. President Taft has placed the Census Bureau on a thoroughly business basis. He has been successful in effecting many economies in the departments, with the result that the estimates for this year have been decreased about forty-two millions of dollars. He has extended civil-service principles in many directions, notably by establishing examinations for entrance to the diplomatic service and by filling the higher grades solely by promotions from the lower grades. The President has proposed many other changes which can be put into effect only by an act of Congress. Members of Congress, however, seem callous to the waste and extravagance that permeates the departments. It is with the greatest reluctance that Congress approves of any change that may involve a decrease in patronage. President Taft has proposed to reduce the eighteen pension agencies to one central agency. The discussion that took place when this matter came up in the House of Representatives indicates an unfriendly attitude toward measures of this sort. Therefore, the responsibility in this case, as in most others, rests with Congress.

The Keep Commission, appointed by President Roosevelt, made a most exhaustive report, in which attention was called to the lack of proper organization in the departments, faulty systems of bookkeeping, unnecessary employees, etc. Despite the serious nature of the disclosures made in this report, little attention was given to it, and only a very few of the recommendations made were adopted.

In many branches of the government service there has been little or no progress in half a century, except in the size of the ap-

propriations required to operate them. In 111 years government expenses have increased five times as fast as population. Some of the bureaus are now spending more than the cost of the entire government service in 1853. Since 1897 the cost of all government has increased 32 per cent. for each person.

Senator Aldrich gives it as his opinion that the national Government would save $300,000,000 a year if it were conducted on a business basis and managed as cleverly and efficiently as a large corporation.

The country has been shaken from ocean to ocean by the disclosures of graft and dishonesty in connection with the life insurance companies and sugar companies. The total amount involved was ridiculously small as compared with one year's waste from inefficiency and extravagance in conducting the public business; yet these conditions have obtained for generations, and it is only when they have grown into such proportions that they affect the public credit and the taxes of the country become burdensome that we recognize their appalling purport.

Consider what this annual waste of $300,000,000 means. It is 40 per cent. of the whole cost of running the Government. It is equal to the total value of all of our exports of iron, agricultural implements, mineral oils, and cotton. It is $33,000,000 more than all the dividends paid to all the stockholders of all the railroads in the United States. It is $30,000,000 more than the value of the entire meat product of the Chicago packing houses, and it is 25 per cent. more than the combined total wages paid in the iron and steel, textile, and lumber industries of the whole country. With these startling figures before us, why not support Taft in his appeal for economies? Why not muckrake, probe, and regulate public expenditures for a while? To correct these manifest evils would lift a great burden from a patient, long-suffering people.

The lack of proper method, the absence of proper co-ordination, and the use of complicated procedure that run through the departments of municipal, State, and national governments also permeate the courts and hinder and make expensive the administration of justice.

The great expense that attends litigation in this country not only interferes with the dispensation of justice but increases the burden of the tax-payers. Let us emulate the example of England, to the end that all,—the rich and the poor alike,—may obtain certain and speedy justice from the courts at a minimum expense.

It has been stated that 44,000 new laws were last year added to the statutes by Congress and the State Legislatures,—laws to regulate everybody and everything, except the public expenditures of the lawmakers themselves and of the various departments of the Government. The great majority of the men sitting in our legislative bodies are lawyers, whose natural tendency is to remedy every ill by statute.

Many of these laws are unconstitutional, many incapable of enforcement; others seek to give special advantage to certain individuals or classes, or to exempt some trades and industries from the operation of laws governing other people. But many, perhaps a majority, of this annual grist of new statutes are frankly for the purpose of adding to the machinery of government, setting up new "circumlocution offices," creating new jobs for the rapidly increasing "Barnacle" family, and providing new ways of spending the people's money. It, therefore, becomes necessary to enact other laws to raise additional revenue by new forms of taxation. We are now suffering from an overproduction of legislation, and it is high time that we should curtail the output. To the high cost of operating the national Government may be attributed the duties on many articles that otherwise should be admitted at a lower rate, —or put on the free list. It is not the tariff that is responsible for the high cost of living, but it is cumbersome business methods, public extravagance, and waste which are largely responsible for the high tariff.

Both political parties are committed to the policy of raising a large part of the national revenues by duties on imports. The income from a tariff on luxuries only would be insufficient; the income tax cannot be levied without constitutional amendment; the corporation tax is of doubtful constitutionality. With a large and always increasing national expenditure there is no alternative but to maintain and increase duties on many articles of everyday consumption. If the one ugly, insistent item,—national extravagance,—could be eliminated the tariff would largely cease to be the dominant factor in political discussion.

For the last decade public opinion has turned our law makers to the consideration of the rights of the people as against the encroachments of the great corporations. With

the commencement of the era of prosperity in 1897, in the eagerness for commercial and industrial supremacy, many corporations grew to disregard the rights of the public, to disobey the law, and to assume an intolerant attitude toward those whose interests were in conflict with their own. The inevitable result was that the people and their representatives became convinced that corporate rights were too loosely described and that government regulation was needed to prevent corporate lawlessness and injustice. With this in view, many laws have been enacted, some wise, some foolish and unjust; but the net result has been to bring corporations to a better understanding of their own rights and a more definite recognition of the rights of others.

With all this, however, there has come a danger that the leaders in the agitation for further corporate control seem to disregard. The oversight of business enterprises by the Government has placed on the government payrolls a vast number of new officials. It has necessitated the establishment of new departments, the keeping of a mass of records and the compilation of a great quantity of statistics. All this has been done with no serious attempt to reform the antiquated expensive methods prevailing in all departments of the Government. The people have been so intent upon placing the corporation under governmental control that they have overlooked the additional burden they are putting on their own shoulders by placing this work in the hands of officials who, handicapped by bad methods, are rendered powerless to do little more than swell the payrolls.

It goes without saying that predatory corporations either should be brought within the law or put out of business. It is doubtless true that salutary laws have been passed regulating other corporations; but we should also apply ourselves, as a condition precedent to the Government's further controlling and managing these corporations, to reforming the administration of government; otherwise the burden of taxation will become unbearable, intolerable, and in the reaction which will surely follow much of the good of the progressive legislation of recent years will be undone.

Business men are heeding the criticisms upon their methods. They have recognized existing evils and have made it their concern to remedy them. While this process is going forward, and the Government is assuming new and greater duties in the regulation and conduct of business, there should be aroused, by the disclosure of the facts of the situation, a healthy, insistent public sentiment which will bring about the same reforms in municipal, State, and national administrative methods.

A railway, after a financial debauch or incompetent and reckless management, finally ends in the hands of a receiver, and a reorganization becomes necessary. A national, State, or municipal department organization continues on. Its mistakes, errors,—or worse,—are cumulative and are hidden by the tax duplicate. The first requisite, therefore, is the opening up to public scrutiny of the facts which exist in these departments throughout the country. The means for the accomplishment of this are supplied by the Bureau of Municipal Research, which has been far enough tested to prove its ability to accomplish things along this line in national as well as municipal affairs. It came onto the stage at the psychological moment, when the public mind was receptive. It is entitled to the credit of appreciating that through the backing of public opinion it could enter even hostile territory. This same powerful influence that has made this bureau successful so far should still further encourage it until it succeeds in entering the departments of the national Government.

We must consider in this relation that government has become more of a science, more intricate and more difficult of administration. The days of the pioneer are over. With each decade business and the professions have become more specialized. The use of the laboratory is now the rule rather than the exception. The jack-of-all-trades has gone out and the specialist has come in. This should be true of all government service. In older nations, particularly those that have passed through the evolution of absolute monarchies to limited democracies, there is more permanence in the administration of government; for instance, they have permanent secretaries of the Treasury and of other departments. In our Government it was the intention of the founders to give the broadest scope of liberty and freedom, and to govern as little as possible; and for this reason, this being a government of the people, its ultimate success must depend upon the people's recognition of their responsibilities as citizens. Do not let us forget for a moment that, while we are obeying the order of the policeman, it was we who put him on duty.

ANNOUNCEMENTS OF CONVENTIONS, CELEBRATIONS, AND EXPOSITIONS, 1910

CELEBRATIONS AND EXPOSITIONS	PLACE	DATE	SECRETARY
Chester Historical Pageant	Chester, England.	July 18-23	Baring Brothers, Chester, England.
Ecuador Centennial Exposition	Quito, Ecuador.	August 10	
Exposition of Fine Arts	Santiago, Chile.	September 18	Ruchon Brunet, Santiago, Chile.
International Agricultural and Industrial Exposition	Odessa, Russia.	May 15-Oct. 1	
International and Universal Exposition	Brussels, Belgium.	April-October	Brussels Exposition Office, 389 Fifth Avenue, New York.
International Art Exposition	Venice, Italy.	Apr. 22-Oct.1	
International Conference of the American Republics	Buenos Aires, Argentina	July 9	Prof. William R. Shepherd, Columbia University, New York
International Exhibition of China	Nanking, China.	May-October	
International Exhibition of Railways and Land Transport	Buenos Aires, Argentina	May-November	Ed. Schlatter, C.E., Buenos Aires, Argentina.
Japanese-British Exposition	London, England.	May-October	
Mexican Centennial Exposition	Puebla, Mexico.	Sept.-Dec.	Jose Casarin, Mexico City, Mexico.
Mineral and Agricultural Exposition	La Paz, Bolivia.	.....	
Oberammergau Passion Play	Oberammergau, Bavaria.	May 16-Sept. 25	
Ohio Valley Exposition	Cincinnati, O.	Aug. 29-Sept. 24	Robert R. Reynolds (President), Cincinnati, O.
EDUCATIONAL GATHERINGS			
Catholic Summer School of America	Cliff Haven, N. Y.	June 26-Sept. 9	Charles Murray, 7 East Forty-second Street, New York.
Chautauqua Assembly	Chautauqua, N. Y.	June 30-Aug. 28	E. H. Blichfeldt, Chautauqua, N. Y.
International Congress of Commercial Instruction	Vienna, Austria.	Sept. 12-16	
National Education Association	Boston, Mass.	July 2-8	Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Summer School of the South	Knoxville, Tenn.	June 21-July 29	P. P. Claxton (Superintendent), Knoxville, Tenn.
Third International Congress of School Hygiene	Paris, France.	August 2-7	Dr. Dufestel, Paris France.
MEETINGS OF RELIGIOUS BODIES			
American Baptist Missionary Union	Chicago, Ill.	May 6-13	Fred. P. Haggard, Box 41, Boston, Mass.
American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions	Boston, Mass.	October 11-14	Cornelius H. Patton, D.D., 14 Beacon Street, Boston.
American Catholic Union	Philadelphia, Pa.	May 10	John O'Keefe, 1412 Arch Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
American Missionary Association	Boston, Mass.	October 19	C. J. Ryder, D.D., 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.
American Unitarian Association Anniversaries	Boston, Mass.	May 23-28	Charles W. Wendte, D.D., 25 Beacon Street, Boston.
Baptist Young People's Union of America	Saratoga Springs, N. Y.	July 7-10	Rev. George T. Webb, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.
Brotherhood of St. Andrew	Nashville, Tenn.	Sept. 28-Oct. 2	Hubert Carleton, 88 Broad Street, Boston.
Evangelical Lutheran Augustana Synod of North America	Rock Island, Ill.	June 9	John G. Dahlberg, 372 Logan Avenue, Winnipeg, Canada.
Friends' General Conference	Ocean Grove, N. J.	July 7-13	
International Order, King's Daughters and Sons	Baltimore, Md.	November 11-15	Mrs. M. L. Izor, Durand, Mich.
Laymen's Missionary Movement, National Congress	Chicago, Ill.	May 3-6	J. Campbell White, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.
Luther League of America	Pittsburg, Pa.	October	Luther M. Kuhns, Omaha, Neb.
National Conference of Episcopal Church Clubs	Portland, Me.	June 7-8	Charles F. Chase, New Britain, Conn.
National Council of Congregational Churches	Boston, Mass.	October 10	Asher Anderson, D.D., Congregational House, Boston.
National Federation of Religious Liberals	Philadelphia, Pa.	May 10-11	
National Spiritualists' Association	San Francisco, Cal.	October 3-7	George W. Kates, 600 Pennsylvania Ave., S.E., Washington.
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union	Baltimore, Md.	November 12-17	Mrs. Frances P. Parks, Evanston, Ill.
Northfield Conferences and Summer Schools	East Northfield, Mass.	June 11-Oct. 1	A. G. Moody, East Northfield, Mass.
Presbyterian Church in the United States (South)	Lewisburg, W. Va.	May 19	Rev. W. A. Alexander, 501 College Street, Clarksville, Tenn.
Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A., General Assembly	Atlantic City, N. J.	May 19	W. H. Roberts, D.D., 1318 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.
Protestant Episcopal Church, General Convention	Cincinnati, O.	October 5	Henry Anstice, D.D., 281 Fourth Avenue, New York.
Reformed Church in America, General Synod	Asbury Park, N. J.	June 1	William H. DeHart, D.D., Raritan, N. J.
Reformed Presbyterian Church Synod	Winona Lake, Ind.	May 24	J. W. Sproull, D.D., 2325 Perrysville Avenue, Allegheny, Pa.

United Presbyterian Church of No. Am,, General Assembly..	Philadelphia, Pa.	May 25	D. F. McGill, D.D., 1508 Chartiers Street, Allegheny, Pa.
Woman's American Baptist Home Missionary Society.....	Chicago, Ill.	May 5-11	Mrs. Katherine S. Westfall, 2969 Vernon Avenue, Chicago.
World Congress of Free Christianity and Religious Progress.	Berlin, Germany.	August 6-10	Charles G. Wendte, D.D., 25 Beacon Street, Boston.
World Missionary Conference.....	Edinburgh, Scotland.	June 14-24	Charles H. Fahs, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York.
World W. C. T. U. Convention.....	Glasgow, Scotland.	June 4-11	Miss Anna A. Gordon, Evanston, Ill.
World's Conference of the Y. W. C. A.....	Berlin, Germany.	May 18-25	Mabel Cratty, 125 East Twenty-seventh Street, New York.
World's Sunday-School Convention.....	Washington, D. C.	May 19-24	Dr. George W. Bailey, North American Bldg., Philadelphia.
Y. M. C. A. of North America, International Convention....	Toronto, Canada.	October 28-31	C. J. Hicks, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.
Young People's Missionary Movement, General Conference..	Silver Bay, N. Y.	July 22-31	Edmund D. Soper, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York.

SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL GATHERINGS

American Academy of Medicine.....	St. Louis, Mo.	June 4-6	Dr. Charles McIntire, 52 North Fourth Street, Easton, Pa.
American Association for the Advancement of Science.....	Minneapolis-St. Paul.	December 27	L. O. Howard, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.
American Bar Association.....	Chattanooga, Tenn.	Aug. 30-Sept. 1	Albert C. Ritchie, Calvert Building, Baltimore, Md.
American Chemical Society.....	San Francisco, Cal.	July 12-14	Charles L. Parsons, Durham, N. H.
American Climatological Association.....	Washington, D. C.	May 4-5	Dr. Guy Hinsdale, Hot Springs, Va.
American Electrochemical Society.....	Pittsburg, Pa.	May 4-7	Prof. Joseph W. Richards, South Bethlehem, Pa.
American Historical Association.....	Indianapolis, Ind.	December 27-31	C. B. Coleman, 33 Downey Avenue, Indianapolis, Ind.
American Institute of Electrical Engineers.....	Jefferson, N. H.	June 27-30	Ralph W. Pope, 33 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.
American Institute of Homeopathy.....	Long Beach, Cal.	July 11-16	Dr. W. E. Nichols, 215 No. Marengo Avenue, Pasadena, Cal.
American Library Association.....	Mackinac Island, Mich.	June 30-July 6	Chambers Hadley, 1 Washington Street, Chicago.
American Medical Association.....	St. Louis, Mo.	June 7-10	Dr. George H. Simmons, 535 Dearborn Avenue, Chicago.
American Medico-Psychological Association.....	Washington, D. C.	May 3-6	Charles G. Wagner, Binghamton, N. Y.
American Society of Civil Engineers.....	Chicago, Ill.	June 21-24	Charles Warren Hunt, 220 West Fifty-seventh St., New York.
American Society of Mechanical Engineers.....	Atlantic City, N. J.	May 31-June 3	Lester G. French, 29 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.
American Surgical Association.....	Washington, D. C.	May 3-5	Dr. Robert G. LeConte, 1530 Locust Street, Philadelphia.
American Therapeutic Society.....	Washington, D. C.	May 5-7	Dr. Noble P. Barnes, Washington, D. C.
International Hahnemannian Association.....	Kansas City, Mo.	July 6-9	Dr. J. B. S. King, Masonic Temple, Chicago.
National Eclectic Medical Association.....	Boston, Mass.	June 28-July 10	Dr. W. P. Best, Indianapolis, Ind.
Nurses' Associated Alumnæ of the United States.....	New York.	May 16-21	Miss Agnes G. Deans, Detroit, Mich.

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL CONFERENCES

American Economic Association.....	St. Louis, Mo.	December 27-30	T. N. Carver, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
American Public Health Association.....	Milwaukee, Wis.	September 5-9	Dr. William C. Woodward, Washington, D. C.
Child Conference for Research and Welfare.....	Worcester, Mass.	June 28-July 3	Henry S. Curtis, 936 Main Street, Worcester, Mass.
International Socialist Congress.....	Copenhagen, Denmark.	August 29	
Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration.....	Mohonk Lake, N. Y.	May 18-20	H. C. Phillips, Mohonk Lake, N. Y.
National Conference of Charities and Correction.....	St. Louis, Mo.	May 19-26	W. H. McClain, 1623 Washington Avenue, St. Louis, Mo.
National Congress of Mothers.....	Denver, Colo.	June 10	Mrs. James McGill, Loan & Trust Building, Washington, D. C.
National Conference on City Planning.....	Rochester, N. Y.	May 2-4	Chamber of Commerce, Rochester, N. Y.
National Municipal League.....	.....	November 15-18	Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 121 So. Broad Street, Philadelphia.

OTHER OCCASIONS

American Bankers' Association.....	Los Angeles, Cal.	October 3-7	Fred. E. Farnsworth, 11 Pine Street, New York.
Farmers' National Congress.....	Lincoln, Neb.	October 8	G. M. Whitaker, 1404 Harvard St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
General Confederation of Women's Clubs.....	Cincinnati, O.	May 11-18	Mrs. Sarah A. Evans, Sinton Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Grand Army of the Republic, National Encampment.....	Atlantic City, N. J.	September 5	George Barrett, Camden, N. J.
International Congress of Indians.....	Muskogee, Okla.	June 27-July 4	Muskogee Commercial Club, Muskogee, Okla.
International Sunshine Society.....	New Haven, Conn.	May 19-21	Mrs. Cynthia W. Alden (President), 96 Fifth Ave., New York.
National Association of Manufacturers.....	New York City.	May 16-18	George S. Boudinot, 170 Broadway, New York.
National Irrigation Congress.....	Pueblo, Colo.	September 26-30	Arthur Hooker, Pueblo, Colo.
Polish National Congress.....	Washington, D. C.	May 12	S. J. Szechowicz, 1406 West Division Street, Chicago.
Rheims Aviation Meet.....	Rheims, France.	July 3-10	
United Daughters of the Confederacy.....	Little Rock, Ark.	November 9	Mrs. Andrew L. Dowdell, Opelika, Ala.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WHAT THE PROPOSED POSTAL SAVINGS-BANK SYSTEM REALLY MEANS

AFTER full and free consideration the United States Senate passed the bill proposing to establish postal savings-banks; at the present time of writing the measure is awaiting discussion in the House of Representatives. Many of the arguments of the opponents of postal savings-banks evinced considerable ignorance on the subject, while some of them were absolutely grotesque in their puerility. One Senator held that Congress had just as much power to compel the citizen to supply money by threatening him with punishment as it had to tempt him by guaranteeing to him a profit on it. A certain bankers' association issued a circular pointing out the unwisdom of the proposed system "because it would lead to the development of bands of robbers in the South and West, having the robbery of the post-offices as their objective." Another objection was the enormous investment in burglar-proof safes which would be rendered necessary by the new scheme. Strangely enough, not one of the objectors seemed to be aware of a significant fact,—namely, that in no country in which a postal savings-bank system has been adopted has a backward step ever been taken. The Hon. Thomas H. Carter, United States Senator from Montana, calls attention to this fact in the *North American Review* for April; and he cites the following statement made in 1888 after the lapse of twenty-seven years by Mr. Gladstone, the promoter of the postal savings-bank legislation in the British House of Commons:

> The post-office savings-bank is the most important institution which has been created in the last fifty years for the welfare of the people and the State. I consider the act of 1861, which called the institution into existence, as the most useful and fruitful of my long career.

So satisfactorily did the system operate in the United Kingdom that it was soon adopted by France, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Sweden, Russia, Belgium, the Netherlands, and their several colonies. Brazil has recently enacted a postal savings law, and to-day Chile also is experimenting with the system.

Senator Carter thus outlines the important features of the bill now before Congress:

> The act provides for the establishment of a postal savings system, to be under the management and control of a board of trustees, consisting of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General, acting *ex-officio*. This board is authorized to make all needful rules and regulations for carrying out the provisions of the act in reference to the receipt, transmission, custody, investment, and repayment of moneys received at postal savings depositories. Each money order office in the United States is made a postal savings depository subject to the proviso that in the beginning the Postmaster-General may restrict the depositories to the so-called "Presidential" offices, about 7500 in number, and thereafter extend the system as rapidly as practicable to all remaining money order offices, approximating 43,000 in number. When finally installed the system will be operated in over 50,000 money order post-offices.
>
> Any person of the age of ten years or over may become a depositor; but no person shall be allowed to deposit more than $100 in any one calendar month nor more than $500 in the aggregate, nor will any person be permitted to have more than one postal savings account.
>
> Deposits must be made in sums of one dollar or multiples thereof, but smaller sums can be saved through a card and stamp system, which will allow accumulations up to one dollar, when the card and stamp thereto attached can be presented at the post-office for deposit. Interest will be paid on deposits at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum and deposits may be withdrawn on demand, subject to such rules and regulations as the board of trustees may prescribe.

In the United Kingdom, where the postal savings system has been in operation for forty-nine years, the total savings amount to $700,000,000; and it may reasonably be concluded that in due course of time the savings of the people of the United States will equal that sum. It is, says Senator Carter, the manner of disposing of this money that has formed the bone of contention in and out of Congress. The act provides "that postal savings funds shall be deposited in any solvent bank or banks organized under national or State law, and subject to public inspection and examination doing business in the neighborhood in which the post-office is

situated. Such deposits would be repayable on demand and the banks would be required to pay interest upon them at a rate not less than 2¼ per cent. per annum. If any banks should decline to receive the deposits on these terms the amounts may be deposited with the Treasurer of the United States. In time of war or other emergency in which the credit of the Government is involved the board may withdraw all or any part of the funds from the banks and invest them in Government bonds or other securities, returning not less than 2¼ per cent. per annum.

All pessimistic prophecies to the contrary notwithstanding, it will be seen that in no way can the adoption of the postal system disturb the financial equilibrium of the country.

To the objection that has been made that an additional bookkeeper would be needed at each of the 50,000 postal savings-banks, Senator Carter opposes the experience of Great Britain, where, after the system had been completely established, it was found that "only seventy additional employees were required to conduct the business." The further objection, that the new system would be paternalistic, may be effectively disposed of by the reply that in the same sense the whole postal service is paternalistic. That the proposed system would be "a powerful agency working most efficiently to preserve the equilibrium in time of financial disturbance" there is little room to doubt; and we think Senator Carter is justified in assuming that when the new Government depositories shall have become available numbers of small hoards now in insecure hiding-places will be immediately turned over to the postmasters.

In the same number of the *North American Review* Mr. Harold Stone asks whether instead of adopting the present Postal Savings bill it would not be better to enact a national savings-bank law embracing the good points in the proposed act and the good points of the system now in operation. He calls attention to certain criticisms of the new measure, which we here condense:

> So much money is already lost on the post-office business annually in the Untied States that it is doubtful if the Government could run the new system economically. . . . With regard to the guaranteeing of deposits, it does not seem right that the rest of the nation should become liable for any possible loss sustained by the bank depositor unless the Government is at fault in some such way as would make an individual conducting the same kind of business liable. . . . As the rate of interest at national banks in the New England States averages 2.66 per cent., and in the Western States 3.69 per cent., it does not seem fair to pay only 2 per cent. to the postal savings-bank depositors. . . . Under the new system the investment of an enormous sum of money would be turned over to men who are not necessarily experienced investors. Estimating (conservatively) this at $8,000,000,000, it would appear to be a physical impossibility for any one committee to manage such an amount in such way as trust funds should be invested.

Mr. Stone suggests that, were a national savings-bank law enacted, the existing post-office facilities might readily be used for the collection and accumulation of deposits; and these might be turned over to local boards of trustees for investment in accordance with a law patterned after laws now in force in the States in which savings-banks are in operation.

THE PROSPECTS OF "GREATER SPAIN"

AN enthusiastic view of the future of the Spanish race in the New World is given in an article in *España Moderna,* bearing the title "La inmensa España," which might be rendered "Greater Spain." The writer, Arturo Pérez Martín, a Costa Rican, calls upon patriotic Spaniards to substitute the idea of the wide extension of the Spanish race for a narrow patriotism, limited to the national domain. The keynote is struck in the opening sentence: "Of all the advantages gained by a Spaniard who visits Latin-America the greatest is self-confidence and faith in his own powers." Pursuing this idea, Señor Martín continues.

He understands that if the restless energy of the citizens of the United States constitutes a serious peril for the Latin-American nations, this is because these citizens can count upon the constant support of their powerful nation, while Europeans find themselves isolated, and abandoned by the nations of the Old World, whose activities are absorbed in the construction of battleships and the equipment of armies. These nations are blind to the fact that in Latin-America there is an immense empire, destined to be the theater of a great struggle of races, in which the Latin race, in order to be victorious, will not need cannon, but love and devotion, the forces which create homes, people wildernesses, and produce citizens. . . . The Monroe Doctrine can forbid Europe to hold new colonies in America, but it cannot prevent Spain, France, and Italy from pursuing a national

policy tending to protect the peaceful conquest, by emigration from those lands, of the immense riches stored up in Latin-America for those possessing the ability to extract them from its fertile plains and its virgin forests. More especially Spain, favored by her language and by historic associations, has a sacred mission before humanity, a mission she can only fulfill by establishing constant relations between her sons who have left the mother-country and those who still remain there.

The fact that the Spanish-speaking peoples occupy an immense territory, greater than that under the control of most European nations, should, in the opinion of the writer, be ever present to the minds of Spaniards. Indeed, Latin-America covers a considerably larger extent of country than does Anglo-Saxon America, and if, in the far distant future, the New World should become as densely populated throughout its whole extent as are some parts of the Old World, Latin-America would have the larger population. The essential character of "Greater Spain" is indicated as follows:

This spiritual empire, with its unwritten federation of independent peoples, is not, strictly speaking, Spain. Undoubtedly, for the moment, Madrid would be its capital; to-morrow the capital would be Buenos Aires or Santiago de Chile. But if the federation, decreed neither by material force nor by laws, should render Spaniards and Spanish-Americans brothers, it can be a matter of indifference whether the artist or the savant win his title in Madrid, Bogotá, or Lima.

Señor Martín appeals to the political leaders of Spain to further the study of the Spanish-American states, and urges them to familiarize themselves with the character and resources of these countries. For the attainment of this end he believes that certain ex-ministers, especially those who have presided over the departments of State, of the Treasury, and of Education, should be sent to Latin-America, so as to study the conditions there, as it would naturally be impossible for those actually in office to spare time for the voyage. These prospective visitors must be made to understand that "seasickness is not a dangerous malady. If Castelar had known this he might have been the emperor of Greater Spain. He would at least have laid firm foundations for it." Referring to the emigration from Spain, Señor Martín suggests that the Spanish Government should take measures to safeguard the interests of the emigrants. In this connection he writes:

Letters published in the Madrid newspapers show that many of the emigrants, after their arrival, repent of having come, realizing that they have changed from bad to worse. The first care of the government should be to disseminate trustworthy information regarding salaries, occupations, cost of living, and the hygienic conditions prevailing in the various countries, so as to avoid exaggerated expectations. Besides this, the Spanish Government should provide a vessel to repatriate those who may regret their journey, who have not been able to establish themselves, and who lack the necessary funds to pay for a return passage.

The article concludes with a brief account of the advantages offered by Costa Rica, a land which contrasts favorably with its neighbors, for, during the eighty-eight years of its independence, it has had but twenty-two presidents, and has engaged in only one war.

CUBA'S EDUCATIONAL VICISSITUDES

THE first American intervention in Cuba found educational matters on the island in a lamentable condition. About 64 per cent. of the population could not read. Two per cent. could read, but not write; 33 per cent. could write, but were without superior education, and only 1 per cent. had received higher education. Under Spain there had really never been anything like popular education. Although the opening of the nineteenth century witnessed some half-hearted efforts on the part of the government to improve and establish primary education, the few schools that were opened were "poor, weak, lifeless things that naturally gave little result in general education." "Education," writes Mr. R. L. Bullard in the *Educational Review*, "is with Americans a national hobby."

Whenever, for whatever cause, a people has come under our national tutelage, our first thought and pains have been to put them to school. We had done so with negro and Indian; and we did so now with redoubled zeal and energy with Cubans. Great appropriations were made; new laws and orders put forth. It was to be a veritable revolution. In a few months the wretched, inefficient, merely nominal schools of Spain's régime were made real, equipped, and trebled in numbers. A complete system taken from the school laws of the State of Ohio was established, and under zealous, disinterested American officials put in effective operation throughout Cuba.

The main features of this system were the payment from the national treasury of all the costs; participation by the people, through superintendents and local boards, in school matters; similar participation by the government through a cabinet officer and various officials, and administrative and technical inspections. What all this actually meant is best stated in Mr. Bullard's own words:

> The superior school age limit was at once raised from nine to fourteen, a mighty jump. Normal and summer schools were established. Some 2500 teachers had to be and were improvised. Text-books were provided by translation from the English. The university and the provincial *Institutos de Segunda Enseñanza* [a sort of high school or college intermediate between the common schools and the university] were reorganized and put upon a more modern and practical basis. The School of Arts and Trades, a mere workshop under Spain, was made an effective technical school where young men could really learn a mechanical trade. Special courses and schools, English for any who desired, drawing and modeling for artists, cutting and sewing for girls, and other special courses were made a part of the system.

CAPT. MATTHEW HANNA, U. S. A.
(Who during the first American occupation revolutionized the Cuban educational system)

The people of Cuba met these changes with tremendous enthusiasm. That such was the case was due in great measure to "the energy and determination of two men, Gen. Leonard Wood and Lieut. Matthew E. Hanna, governor-general and commissioner of education respectively. The latter especially, going far beyond all mere official duty by his untiring patience, tact, and zeal, won the good-will and co-operation of the Cubans." Mr. Bullard bears no uncertain testimony to Lieutenant Hanna's labors. He says:

> Traveling almost continually at great pains and inconvenience over the whole island, he visited the remotest places and districts, instructing and making enthusiastic public teachers and pupils alike. He left in his work a record that can hardly again be equaled. . . . His work and personality, more than perhaps anything else American in Cuba in this generation, brought Cuba nearer to America. He left his system working.

Unfortunately the first American intervention lasted too short a time to protect and nourish the new system to permanent development. When the Americans withdrew from Cuba the new system came into conflict with the old ideas of the country, and in the course of a few years was in danger of being almost overwhelmed. This was not surprising. For one thing, it had not been possible to adapt completely the Ohio law to Cuban conditions. Then, again, the changes had been very sudden and sweeping, and it must be admitted that in applying the remedy we had given an overdose. As Mr. Bullard puts it:

> There is no people that has like faith, or approximately like faith, with us in school education as a cure for every human defect, individual, national, or racial. We prescribed it in too great a quantity in succession to Indian, negro, Filipino, and Cuban, with the same result in every case,—the patient's stomach turned.

In half a dozen years the new system lost its vigor. Hours of work were relaxed, the teachers grew careless, compulsory attendance was dropped, and politics of the worst type bore down the whole scheme. Cuba will now have to begin over again. She must adapt her system to the genius, form of government, and state of advancement of her people. It is not more money that she wants; for the state now spends $4,000,000 annually on education. The abuse of politics will not probably be lasting, but will correct itself with experience.

Mr. Bullard mentions several interesting facts in connection with education in Cuba, among which are the following:

> Unlike us in the United States, in Cuba there is no color line. White, black, and yellow, European, African, and Asiatic sit together in still unbroken accord. Of 4000 teachers, 300 are emphatically negroes.

The question of religion never comes up in the schools. Cuba has never been torn by religious differences.

Women constitute three-fourths of all the teachers of the island. Among the pupils girls far outnumber boys. After fourteen, boys drop out almost entirely.

Outdoor sports and running games are largely wanting in the Cuban schools; consequently there are a large number of narrow-chested, consumptive-looking children. Some effort has been made in the cities to remedy this condition; and the university has commendably taken steps toward the same end.

What Mr. Bullard considers the most significant thing in all Cuban education is the ever-increasing study of English. It appears that among Cuba's 2,000,000 people 40,000, or one in every fifty, are studying that language in some way, in school or out.

THE EVOLUTION OF NATIONAL UNITY IN INDIA

INDIA has come to be regarded so generally as "the land of unrest" that it is positively refreshing to read three articles on national unity, such as those appearing in the *Hindustan Review* (Allahabad), in which the existing conditions in the peninsula are accepted as naturally incidental to a process of evolution that is to end in a united, unified nation. Mr. E. A. Wodehouse, whose paper is headed "National Unity: Its Evolution in India," thinks there is no doubt that the general tendency of evolution is in the direction of unity; but that it is at the same time in the direction of gradually increasing specialization and differentiation. In the evolution of an organism two things occur at every stage in its growth: (1) The more definite specialization of the form and (2) the widening of the consciousness or life. It is the same with nations.

> There is in undeveloped nations a kind of dull, inert unity. As soon as a nation begins to grow, the tendency is toward the specialization,—through education and other formative influences,—of the units which compose it. This at first leads to difference and disruption; but the final unity can only emerge through continuance along this line.

Applying these remarks to India it is seen that they suggest the important truth,—that the cause of unity must be differently served, according to the existing state of development of the race or power concerned. In India to-day the class that is calling most earnestly for unity is simply that class which has become most highly specialized: the educated class. But the great mass of the inhabitants of India are still at the stage at which the whole process of differentiation still remains to be begun.

There is no more complex and interesting problem before the student of history to-day than the evolution of India. There is no other instance in history, says Mr. Wodehouse, of a recrudescence of national life after so many centuries, nor one in which a revival has ever seemed to be so fraught with such real significance for civilization in general. There is only one known means of hastening evolution, and that is education; for out of education will emerge after a time the intellectual demand for unity, which is the only demand which has strength enough to mold the actual to its creed.

A writer on the early history of India has said: "India, encircled as she is by seas and mountains, is indisputably a geographical unit, and as such is rightly designated by one name." Adopting this idea, Sister Nivedita (Miss Margaret Noble), who has for her subject "The Underlying Unity of Indian Life," claims that

> any country which is geographically distinct has the power to become the cradle of a nationality. National unity is dependent upon place. The rank of a nation in humanity is determined by the complexity of its component parts. What any one of its elements has achieved in the past, the nation may expect to attain as a whole in the future. Complexity of elements, when duly subordinated to the nationalizing influence of place, is a source of strength and not weakness to a nation.

India has the first treasure of a nation, geographical distinctness, in an extraordinary degree. Is there any unity of life and type perceptible among the Indian people which might sooner or later serve as the foundation for a realized Indian nationality? Sister Nevedita cites two or three:

> A profound emotional development and refinement is the most marked trait of Indian personality; and it is common to all the races and creeds of that vast subcontinent. Again, the keystone of the arch of family devotion, alike for Hindu and Mohammedan, lies in the feeling of the son for his mother. . . . In devotion to the mother and in chivalry for old age,

Mohammedan and Hindu are absolutely one. The Mohammedan derives his customs from Arabia: the Hindu bases his habits on his own past, and on the necessity of preserving a higher civilization from modification by lower. . . . Many of the highest and most trusted officers of a Hindu ruler will be Mohammedans, and vice versa. I find an overwhelming aspect of Indian unity in the fact that no single member or province repeats the function of any other.

But the one great elemental motive common to all the types is love to India. With the Bengalee, Mahratta, Panjabee, Dravidian, and Mohammedan alike love of home, pride of race, idealism of woman is a passion, and devotion to India as India finds some characteristic expression.

Dr. Ananda K. Coomaraswamy, who writes on "National Self-consciousness in India," asks what are the things which make possible national self-consciousness and which constitute nationality, and says, in reply, "Two essentials of nationality there are,—a geographical unity, and a common historic evolution or culture." These two India possesses super-abundantly, besides "many lesser unities which strengthen the historic tradition." The fact of India's geographical unity is never disputed. Social unity is equally recognized by the student of Indian culture. The idea has been grasped also by more than one individual ruler. In legends references to councils of the gods held in the Himalayas are met with. No one can say that such an idea as that of a Federated States of India is altogether foreign to the Indian mind. But, more than all this, there is evidence enough that the founders of Indian culture and civilization and religion had this unity in view. This writer very happily puts the situation with regard to unity thus:

The diverse peoples of India are like the parts of some puzzle, seemingly impossible to fit together, but falling easily into place when once the key is known; and that key is the realization of the facts that the parts do fit together, which we call national self-consciousness.

"INSURGENCY" IN ART

IT will, we think, surprise many of the readers of the REVIEW to learn that "in this country we have no need of art as a culture, no need of art as a refined and elegant performance, no need of art for poetry's sake, or any of these things for their own sake." They will, however, all agree that "what we do need is art that expresses the *spirit* of the people of to-day." These views are enunciated by Mr. Robert Henri in an article on the Exhibition of Independent Artists, contributed by him to the *Craftsman*. This exhibition, which was held in New York during the past month, included 344 examples, mainly impressionistic. It is generally understood that it was suggested by Mr. Henri; and as he himself is a National Academician, a Fellow of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, and a member of the Chicago Art Institute, it goes without saying that his comments on the independent art movement must be accepted as entirely disinterested. He says that the exhibition is not one "of the rejected, nor an exhibition of people who have had their pictures accepted or refused by the academy. It is not a gathering together of 'kickers' of any description, but is an expression of the present tendency in America towards developing individuality." The exhibition was arranged with the distinct view of "bringing together all workers, old or young, who have some definite direction in their work." It stands for

freedom to think and to show what you are thinking about . . . freedom to study and experiment and to present the results of such essay, not in any way being retarded by the standards which are the fashion of the time, and not to be exempted from public view because of such individuality or strangeness in the manner of expression. What such an exhibition desires is all the new evidence, all the new opinions that the artists have, and then their work must either succeed by its integrity or fail from the lack of it. We want to know the ideas of young men. We do not want to coerce them into accepting ours. . . .

In Mr. Henri's opinion there is but a single reason for the development of art in America,—namely, that the people of America may "learn the means of expressing themselves in their own time and in their own land." He then gives utterance to the views cited at the head of this paper; but he seems to qualify them somewhat a little further on when he says:

It is necessary for the people in this country to understand *what* art is, to understand *why* it is, to understand that it is the expression of the temperament of our people, that it is the development of the imagination which in the end must affect not only the production of painting, of sculpture and poems, music, architecture, but

MR. ROBERT HENRI

(Who is said to have suggested the Exhibition of Independent Artists in New York)

every phase of our daily existence. If art is real it must come to affect every action in our lives, every product, every necessary thing.

Mr. Henri is insistent with regard to the necessity of taking heed to what the younger artists have to say.

What we want is to meet young people who are expressing the spirit of the people of to-day and listen to what they have to tell us. Those of us who are old should be anxious to be told the things by those who are to advance beyond us, and we should not hate to see them in their progress. We should rejoice that a building is rising on the foundation that we have helped and are still helping to erect.

Having thought a good deal about a possible substitute for the academy idea, "in what way pictures could be exhibited entirely without the jury and the hanging committee," Mr. Henri suggests the following scheme:

A gallery that might be of great educational value and of great honor to the City of New York could be established along the following lines: It would be perhaps some three or four times larger than the present Fine Arts Building on Fifty-seventh Street, New York. It would contain many rooms of equal value for exhibition purposes, these rooms to be at the service of artists who would form themselves into groups of twenty, gaining by the formation of their body the right to use one of the rooms for a period of one month. A waiting list might occur, because there might be many groups of twenty men who would care to associate themselves in one exhibition. Such a gallery should be under the freest of direction. It should be a city institution, actually for the advancement and encouragement of the arts, a place for trying out the artists' ideas, a place where they could exhibit and where there was no judge except the public and the nineteen other men of the same group. This proposition seems to me to do away with any permanent organization of artists, with any board of officers, with any presidents, with any body of men who sit in judgment on other men. All that is necessary is for a man to be acceptable to nineteen other artists who are sufficiently in accord to wish to ally themselves in an exhibition.

A Criticism of the Exhibit on

A rather sharp criticism of the independent exhibition as it exists appeared in the New York *Tribune* a few days after the opening of the gallery. The *Tribune* critic, who signs himself "R. C.," has the following to say:

There is only one test. Is the new painter a good painter? He does not deserve to triumph just because he is new. If he is also a bad painter he has no business trying to drum up revolution; he should leave that to his betters. It is idle to hope, however, that these things will ever be governed by reason and so the most that one can do is to observe the testimony of the past. All the really fertilizing developments in modern art have had their source in rebellion. . . . One truth they have all enforced, and that is that you cannot keep a man of genius down. But you have got to have your genius. . . . But the average artist here would appear to be thinking more of his subject than of his technique, and, until technique is got under perfect control, this is a tendency fraught with danger. We continue the search, with an eye to the thing that might promise a safe emergence from the general welter, the note of individuality expressed with such power as to silence criticism. Frankly, it is here that the most painstaking and eagerly sympathetic examination of the show leads to the bitterest disappointment. There are certain men who are clever enough to arrest the observer, interest him and give him some pleasure. But not one of these artists, not even the prodigiously clever Mr. Henri, impresses us as an especially new type or one richly endowed as regards technique. As for the rank and file, we receive therefrom scarcely any favorable impressions whatever. The reason is plain. On every hand the charm and mystery of good painting are sadly neglected. Brutal draftsmanship, which has not the distinction of individuality to excuse its brutality; color that is coarse and opaque, a vague feeling of ugliness and a very decided feeling that the lessons of the schoolroom, if followed at all, have not been really assimilated,—these are the things which presently provoke the reflection that the independent artists decline to recognize the point dividing the professional from the amateur.

ANDERS ZORN, THE SWEDISH MAUPASSANT IN ART

IT would be difficult to think of any living painter,—certainly none could be found in the Scandinavian countries,—who has won such immediate and almost universal recognition abroad as Anders Zorn. After reading an article, dealing with his life and art, which appears in the February number of *Ord och Bild* (Stockholm) one can reach only one conclusion,—that Zorn achieved his international reputation by remaining steadfastly loyal to his early conceptions of Art's mission, the portrayal of Nature, by scornfully refraining from the employment of the commonplaces, dubiously known as "internationalism" in painting lore, on which so many artists have depended for a superficial and short-lived popularity, and by boldly throwing down the gauntlet to the conventional when the conventional constituted an obstacle to the telling of truth on canvas.

As an illustration of Zorn's courage, the writer in *Ord och Bild* tells how the Swedish artist when he made his first bid for fame in this country, sent to the Columbian Exposition at Chicago a series of paintings in which the naturalistic treatment of the nude might have been supposed to prove too much of a challenge to Puritanical concepts to permit of an unbiased verdict. And yet, the writer says, "before the most daring reproductions of the nude by Zorn, the most Puritanical Miss from Massachusetts did not venture a word of protest."

Anders Zorn is fifty years of age. He was born in Dalecarlia, a Swedish province where the sturdy peasant population in the Middle Ages helped to make history on broad lines,—even to the ushering in of a new era. And it may be added here,—where that peasant population of to-day still clings to the ornate but antiquated garb of those same days of history-making and nation-molding. Zorn's father was a Bavarian brewing master. His mother was a simple peasant girl. When he was a little boy, like David of the Bible story, he watched sheep, with this difference, though, that the sheep were not his father's. His father was too poor for that.

While he sat among the white-stemmed birches and kept his sheep from going astray, he carved horses and cows out of wood and colored these images with huckleberry juice.

THE DOWAGER QUEEN OF SWEDEN
(From an etching by Anders Zorn)

Some friends of his father decided that Anders should become a sculptor. After an elementary education he was sent to the Academy of Free Arts at Stockholm. He was gifted, but he was also stubborn. At fifteen he took charge of his own destiny. He decided that sculpture did not lend itself so readily to the purple hues of his horses and cows of the shepherd days. At twenty he had advanced far enough to give lessons in water-color painting. At twenty-one he became dissatisfied with the instruction at the Academy. About that time young Zorn had finished his exquisite water color, "In Mourning,"—a woman's face behind a gauzy black veil. Professor Scholander, Director of the Royal Academy, tried to buy it from his pupil, but the latter fixed the price at such a figure that his teacher considered it beyond his means.

In the early eighties Zorn had earned enough money to enable him to go abroad. He painted some clever water colors which found their way into the collections of the

Royal Academy and into the expositions of the Royal Society for Painting in Water Colors, but his art was never fully appreciated, and he is less known in England today than in any other European country. From England he traveled through Spain and Morocco and back to his native province of Dalecarlia.

From the days when he carved the images of the cattle he guarded up to the present time his sense of realism is the salient feature of his art. It was not until 1889 Zorn began to paint in oil. His first oil painting, "Fishermen in Cornwall," was greatly appreciated in France. It was bought by the Musée de Luxembourg. The same year he received the decoration of the Legion of Honor. It was in 1889, also, that the portrait he had painted of himself was hung in the Uffizi Gallery at Florence. About the same time the National Gallery in Berlin acquired one of his best known paintings,—"A Woman Bathing."

Zorn's art has an independence that is rarely seen. In Spain the youthful Swede, a-hunger and a-thirst for the real, was compelled to admire Valasquez, and that a painting like the "Hille Bobbe" of Franz Hals, with its perfect technique, must have interested Zorn, is more than probable. How does he stand in relation to Manet and the impressionists? Naturally they have influenced his art, but to him Art did not involve merely a problem of optics and technique. . . . In an attempt to draw comparisons one inevitably is brought to think of Maupassant. Zorn has the same splendid technique, the same faculty for emphasizing the essential, the same astounding sensualism, underlined, but without any alien flavor of decadent spices. . . . After looking at one of Zorn's paintings of the nude one will say with much assurance: Our race shall not cease to exist for a very long time to come. His paintings contain no symbolism, they depict the human body so convincingly that the simplest woman becomes a type for the elementary drift and inherent warmth of Life itself.

It is, after all, the etchings of Zorn that will survive as the most characteristic in his art. In these there are chiaroscuro effects worthy of a Rembrandt. Many of Zorn's paintings have found their way to this country, where he is chiefly known as one of the fashionable painters of the Four Hundred. But few of his original etchings have been seen here. Zorn paints with few colors, mostly with black, though he loves red best.

MME. CURIE, DISCOVERER OF RADIUM AND POLONIUM

THE fame acquired some years ago by Mme. Marie Sklodowska Curie by her discovery of radium promises to be equaled, if not surpassed, by the honors which have come to her as the discoverer some months ago of the new, even more wonderful, element polonium. It was as a co-worker with her husband, the late Professor Curie, that this brilliant woman succeeded in isolating radium, and it is now with the assistance of M. de Bierne that she has succeeded in isolating the tenth part of a milligram of polonium. This substance, 5000 times rarer than radium and taking its name from her native Poland, was the product of the chemical treatment of more than 5 tons of pitchblende with hydrochloric acid. Polonium "wastes away" with great rapidity a thousand times quicker than radium. Of course, the value of this discovery is as yet purely scientific in a theoretical sense.

In an article in a recent number of the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris), Professor Lippmann, the French scientist, remarks apropos of Mme. Curie's two discoveries:

Radio-activity, it must be remembered, is a general property of matter. If the theory of radio-active transformations continues to inspire a growing degree of confidence it will result in an important consequence for geology. It will lead to a careful study of the proportions of the elements occurring in rocks with a view to the determination of their relative antiquity. It is manifest that the hypothesis of radio-active transformation is well adapted to the present state of the science of radio-activity. It was among those proposed by the late Pierre Curie and myself at the beginning of our researches into radio-activity, but it has received its perfect development at the hands of Professors Rutherford and Soddy, to whom it is for this reason generally attributed. It seems to me, however, better not to leave the domain of demonstrated fact,—not to lose sight of other explanations of radio-activity which have been proposed. The actual state of the science does not seem to me far enough advanced to warrant a positive conclusion.

Personally Mme. Curie is a very modest and undemonstrative woman. She has been for years one of the most efficient original workers in the laboratory of the Sorbonne. According to a writer in London *Truth* she takes all the honors heaped upon her with

MADAME CURIE IN HER LABORATORY

(This woman of science has devoted her life to investigating the subject of radio-activity)

great modesty and is "the most unobtrusive, reserved person possible." The English writer says:

She is a little better dressed now than formerly, but with extreme plainness. The complexion is still that of one brought up in stove heated rooms, ashen, and the lusterless hair unchanged in all but a few silver threads. She remains hard to read, a consequence of being brought up at Warsaw under the heel of the Russian boot and the eyes of an officialdom jealous of all scientific investigation. Mme. Curie spoke of the university in which her father filled the chair of chemistry as having in all its corridors finger posts pointing to Siberia. . . . As a lecturer she closely confines herself to statement and demonstration, risking nothing that is unproved, however strong cause she may have for divining inference. She is completely innocent under all circumstances of any wish to dazzle or show off. Her laboratory is kept with apple pie order, and her note books show the plain, straightforward and scrupulously exact observation of a good seaman's log. They bristle with notes of interrogation. . . . Mme. Curie is essentially womanly. But she lost her mother early and was brought up at her father's side, in his laboratory, and not warped from her true nature according to any conventional standard of femininity. She evolved from within according to her opportunities and the tender paternal guidance, and became on chemistry an authority in the minds of the university students who came to the laboratory. The suspicious prying of the police taught her how necessary it was to hold her tongue. Reticence in speech became her second nature. Mme. Curie is greatly hindered in her researches by the rapid rise in the price of radium. It is to be hoped the French Government will be able to borrow some grains of the Austrian on the basis of an insurance bond given to the lender. Mme. Curie lectures regularly before the Sorbonne explaining the progress of her work and setting forth what she expects to prove by her experiments.

THE SMALLEST DOLLS IN THE WORLD

ISABEL BELAUNSARAN

(The Mexican "Queen of the Needle," who makes the smallest dolls known)

IN the peaceful and picturesque Mexican valley of Cuernavaca lies the town of the same name, unchanged since the days of the Aztecs and peopled by the descendants of a long line of Indian tribes who, through many vicissitudes, have preserved the customs and the arts of their forefathers. In many respects the place is unique, as will be seen from the following description of it in the *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics by Mr. Russell Hastings Millward:

Nature has been most lavish in her gifts to Cuernavaca, for there time or money counts for little except the peace, comfort, and happiness it will bring. In no place on earth is law more highly respected than in this quaint little village of the crooked streets and cobblestones. A police force is almost unnecessary, as the natives are a peaceful, happy, law-abiding lot of citizens. The poor people there have practically no taxes to pay, as each year the city council calls a meeting of the more prominent property owners, who subscribe, voluntarily, the sums necessary to keep up the village and carry on all necessary public works. Each property owner considers it a great honor to be one of the chosen, and cheerfully sets opposite his name such amount as his purse will allow. All funds are paid in and the necessary work done without delay. Truly, a model municipality!

Cuernavaca is unique in another respect: it is the home of Isabel Belaunsaran, who makes the smallest dolls in the world. She is Queen of the Needle; and the natives, who regard her with a great deal of affection, say that "since the time when the ancient builders of Cuauhnahuac wrote their history in hieroglyphics no cleverer Indian maiden has ever been known."

Mr. Millward's account of how the liliputian dolls are made is as follows:

The operation of making consists in forming a diminutive framework of wire, barely three-fourths of an inch in length, and winding the same with many turns of fine silk thread. After the frame has assumed the proper lines and proportions, it is ready for dressing. The clothes are cut, according to the character of the doll, and fitted carefully about the small figure. The most difficult work, that of embroidering the clothes, is then begun. With a needle that can scarcely be held in the fingers, and whose eye is almost invisible, various designs are actually embroidered on the clothing with the finest of silk threads, and so cleverly executed that even through a powerful magnifying glass the details appear to be perfect, although the entire work is done without the aid of an enlarging device of any kind. After the dressing has been completed it is necessary to add the hair. What is undoubtedly an example of the tiniest and most marvelous hair-dressing on earth is then performed on each doll. Even to the details of the braids and ribbons, the work is most completely carried out. The eyes, nose, mouth, hands, and feet are then formed, and the doll is ready to be placed in the quaint little tea shop, where, on account of its daintiness, exquisite coloring, design, and workmanship, it finds, at all times, a ready sale at the ridiculously low price of 50 cents Mexican currency, or 25 cents gold.

Although the finished dolls bear evidence of the greatest patience as well as of artistic skill, it appears that only two hours are occupied in making each one. Incidentally it may be mentioned that "by working steadily for ten hours each day the sum of $1.25 gold may be earned,—less than the sum paid to an ordinary day laborer in the United States for work of the crudest kind."

Perhaps the most remarkable thing about these dolls is the wonderful variety of types that they are made to represent. Some idea of these may be gleaned from Mr. Millward's description of a few of them. He says:

The matador is complete in every particular, his costume being gaily decorated in many colors, the hair dressed in true Spanish fashion,

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THE DOLLS OF CUERNAVACA

(From photographs. The dolls are exactly the size shown above)

including the conventional cue. Stockings and slippers are added, and a muleta placed in the hand. A sword is then provided and the manikin bullfighter is all ready to enter the ring, so far as miniature details of dress and equipment are concerned. Flower girls are dressed after the manner of their class, and provided with small baskets of flowers in variegated colors. The hair is arranged in a double braid and parted in the middle in keeping with the vogue. Artistic shawls, brilliantly colored, are hung loosely about the shoulders, and the tiny flower sellers are not unlike those seen in the flower markets throughout the country. Native types are represented in their most attractive and picturesque attire. Faithful reproductions of the native serapes are thrown about the shoulders of the dolls, and sombreros placed on the heads

in typical Mexican fashion. Religious dignitaries are also represented in this remarkable doll family and are carefully dressed in full accordance with the character which they are supposed to imitate in dignified miniature.

Some of the dolls are furnished with tiny baskets of flowers, brought from Guanajuato, where they are made by the Indians. Others have fancy hats and other paraphernalia.

The little baskets are composed of fine hair and are woven in the most clever fashion, truly representing those in actual use by the natives. The sombreros are also woven from hair and are examples in miniature of the regulation style. The little pieces of pottery are made from clay on the exact lines and proportions of the practical sizes. All of these accessories are sewn to the dolls and greatly improve the already attractive appearance.

The first dolls of the kind were made about eight years ago. Now they are to be found in the possession of almost all of the royal families of the world.

DR. LUEGER, VIENNA'S GREATEST BURGOMASTER

MONDAY, March 14, 1910, witnessed the most remarkable funeral that Vienna had ever seen. The whole population had turned out to do honor to one who had begun life as the son of a beadle and had ended it as the chief magistrate of the capital of the kingdom. Emperor and archdukes, upper class and lower class, butcher and baker, greengrocer and chimney-sweep, alike did honor to his memory. For many years past, says Mr. W. T. Stead in the London *Review of Reviews,* there have been only two Austrians whose personality was familiar to Europe. "One was Francis Joseph; the other was Dr. Lueger, the Burgomaster of Vienna. Dr. Lueger died last month half-blind, after a long and painful illness of diabetes, at the age of sixty-six. The Emperor, who is now nearly eighty years of age, still survives. When he goes there will not be a single Austrian whose name stands for anything to everybody outside the frontiers of the Empire Kingdom." Mr. Stead gives the following interesting biographical data concerning the deceased Burgomaster:

The boy was dumb till his fourth birthday. His mother, who was the daughter of a carpenter, and a woman of great force of character, devoted herself to his education, and inspired him with an affection which left his heart without any room for the love of any other woman. He never married, and lived after his mother's death with his two sisters, who are to be pensioned by the State. For Dr. Lueger, although untold millions passed through his hands, reduced his own salary as Burgomaster, and died leaving behind him property which, all told, did not exceed £4,000 in value. He was born in 1844, four years before the storm wave of the Revolution burst over Europe. He was educated at the gymnasium, and afterwards graduated at the university in 1866, the year when the Prussian needle-gun at Sadowa shot Austria out of the Germanic Confederation and paved the way for the resurrection of Hungary,—an event which Dr. Lueger regarded with undisguised dislike till the end of his life.

Lueger began his public life as a lawyer and a Liberal. In 1872 he was secretary of the Liberal Club of Vienna, in which the Jewish element predominated. To quote further from Mr. Stead:

He first attracted attention by the vigor of his criticism of municipal maladministration. "The Handsome Karl" soon became recognized as a trenchant debater and a magnificent demagogue. Possessing a resonant voice, much homely wit, a perfect command of the Viennese vernacular, and a physical energy which enabled him to address a dozen meetings in a single day, he speedily won recognition as a formidable adversary. For more than thirty years he spent almost every evening among the habitués of one or other of the suburban beerhouses. When he was thirty-eight years of age, in the year 1882, Lueger felt that the psychological moment had arrived. He proclaimed himself leader of the anti-Semites and issued a proclamation declaring war to the knife against international capitalism organized by Jews and the abolition of the system which permits individuals to manage public business for their private advantage. The Austrian Press, largely controlled by Jews, opened fire. He struck back. He carried the war into the enemy's camp, and in those days it was complained that no charge was too monstrous, no calumny too bitter, for his speeches. In three years he was elected to the Reichsrath, where he opened his Parliamentary campaign by attacking with equal violence the Jews in Austria and the Magyars in Hungary. His motto now was, "A united Austria, German in fabric, Slav in sympathy, and Hapsburgian in dynasty." He held up to popular odium "Jewish capitalism and Magyar tyranny."

Year by year Lueger's popularity increased. He was emphatically a man of the people. A writer in the *Dublin Review,* cited by Mr. Stead, said of him:

Lueger has won his way to the hearts of the people by optimism, good-nature, sympathy and personal interest in their affairs. An indefatigable worker, he has ever found time to laugh and joke, to sympathize, congratulate or condole with the first comer, rich or poor, friend or foe. He has been godfather and wedding guest whenever and by whomever asked, a visitor to sick-beds, and a lover of children. More popular still has been his constant attendance at golden wedding festivities,—a much fêted event in Austria,—and it is estimated that during the first seven years of his Burgomastership he attended no less than 1,372. Although suffering from a painful disease, he has won immense admiration by his constant cheerfulness and gaiety, and, with the exception of several journeys taken to effect a cure, he has never relinquished his work for a moment.

Besides, he was incorruptibly honest, and he used his position as an advocate in the courts almost entirely in pleading for poor clients who could not pay a fee.

It was in 1895 that the Municipal Council elected Lueger Burgomaster. The Emperor's confirmation was necessary; and this was withheld. The Emperor said: "I cannot allow a demagogue to be chief of the local government of Vienna. I cannot suffer attacks upon the Jews, who have always shown loyalty to the dynasty, nor upon the Hungarians, who are my subjects."

Of this stage of Lueger's career the London *Times* says:

A period of conflict followed. Lueger was repeatedly re-elected, until, in response to a direct appeal from the Emperor, he withdrew his candidature and accepted the position of Vice-Burgomaster. But the thundrous applause with which he was received by the populace during the Corpus Domini procession of 1896 left no room for doubt that further efforts to exclude him might be dangerous; and in April, 1897, he took possession of the Rathaus.

Once Burgomaster, his municipal administration was at once examplary and grandiose. By the municipalization, electrification, and development of the tramway service, the municipalization of the gas and electric light supplies, the organization of a large municipal slaughter-house, the creation and upkeep of innumerable public gardens and open spaces, he made Vienna in all externals a modern, if not a model European capital.

Henceforward till his death Lueger "reigned as the uncrowned king of Vienna." Quoting Mr. Stead again:

During recent years his appearance in the streets was constantly hailed by the singing of an anthem beginning, "Hail, Lueger, long may he live!" Streets and squares were named after him, a statue was erected to him, and his drives through Vienna resembled a royal progress. He was the idol and the hero of the Viennese. He deserved his popularity. If he had achieved his great position by an unscrupulous use of

DR. LUEGER, WHO, UNTIL HIS DEATH, REIGNED AS THE "UNCROWNED KING OF VIENNA."

many of the acts of the demagogue, if he had inflamed racial enmity and religious strife, when he arrived in office he did his best to make amends by the excellence of his administration and the moderation of his language. Towards the Magyars and the Social Democrats he was implacable to the last. But he "let up" on the Jews, until the time came when in some quarters it is contended that he was never an anti-Semite at heart.

What Lueger did for Vienna was to revolutionize its administration. He "municipalized everything, and he improved everything, and he made it pay."

He "Haussmannized" Vienna, and made it, instead of the dirty, ill-lighted, ill-paved town of twenty-five years ago, with very bad means of communication, unhealthy, insecure, and a hotbed of immorality, the beautiful and brilliant city it is to-day,—certainly one of the handsomest in Europe. He took over the Viennese gas works from an English company; the city now manages its gas works itself. He turned out the old horse-trams and put in electric; he introduced electric lighting of the streets, built a great municipal slaughter-house, and established central markets, these being only a portion of the undertakings carried out since his term of office as Burgomaster of Vienna. In ten years, in short, Vienna has been brought up to the level of the great European cities. The outlay has been enormous, but the interest on the loans has been covered over and over again by profits; not a penny has been added to the rates.

Mr. Stead says: "Charles Lueger was to Vienna what Joseph Chamberlain has been to Birmingham." Indeed, Mr. Stead heads his sketch, "Dr. Lueger, the Joseph Chamberlain of Vienna."

Lueger was the leader of the Christian Socialists; and "his Catholicism found satisfaction in restoring crucifixes and religious instruction in the public schools." The Viennese are not particularly religious, but they have put Christian Socialists in office and kept them there.

ALSACE FOR THE ALSATIANS

SEVERAL recent events have directed attention to the position of Alsace, notably the Weissenburg commemorations, the Gneisse-Wetterle case, Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg's speeches in the Reichstag, and the discussion in Alsace of the question of autonomy. M. Pierre de Quirielle, an Alsatian economist of some considerable European reputation, writing in the *Correspondant,* endeavors to set forth the views of the Alsatians.

He remarks that the attitude of Bismarck towards Alsace had the great merit of frankness, if not of logic. It suppressed all discussion of the sentiments of the Alsatians. A country violated in the name of force and the right of conquest for the strategic necessities of future war had not to make any answer. Its part was to suffer and possibly to protest. Any assimilation between the Alsatians and the Germans has been made at the expense of the former; but now the Alsatians are resisting German civilization, and a few sympathetic and intelligent Germans are beginning to recognize that Alsatian civilization differs as greatly from the German as the Alsatian mind and character differ essentially from the mind and character of the Germans. These German professors and publicists go even further, for they say that it is vain to continue to force an assimilation of the two nations, that the Alsatian individuality ought to be respected, and that by doing so Germany would be the gainer.

Pan-Germanism, "with its pretensions and stupidity, and its want of understanding of the Alsatian character," is in reality a valuable ally of Alsace, for it proves that in Alsace the Germans are foreigners, and that Alsatian civilization and German civilization are ideas quite opposed to each other. Herr Gneisse, a comic and complete type of the German pedagogue, will find his name immortalized in Alsace as a useful "document" in the Alsatian cause.

In a school at Colmar, where the mistress had been describing in glowing colors the cruelties of Alexander the Great in a city in Asia, a little girl is said to have exclaimed, to the stupefaction of the teacher, "Surely he was a Prussian!" Herr Gneisse, we are informed, repeated this story in a newspaper article and commented indignantly on it, regarding it as spontaneous evidence of the sentiments of Alsace.

Meanwhile the pencil of a simple caricaturist has been portraying to excellent purpose the conflict of the two civilizations. In the albums of Hansi the Germans are always made to look ridiculous. Hansi is the pseudonym of an artist very celebrated in the annexed country, and his albums are published at Paris at frequent intervals. Under the general title of "Images des Vosges," the first volume illustrates a variety of subjects, and the second the restoration by the Germans of the Alsatian castle of Hohkönigsburg. A French translation accompanies the German letter-press. Herr Gneisse figures in Hansi's caricatures. Then the Abbé Wetterle was accused of having personally directed the attention of Herr Gneisse's pupils to the pictures, and Herr Gneisse demanded that proceedings be taken against the Abbé, and hence the much-discussed Gneisse-Wetterle affair.

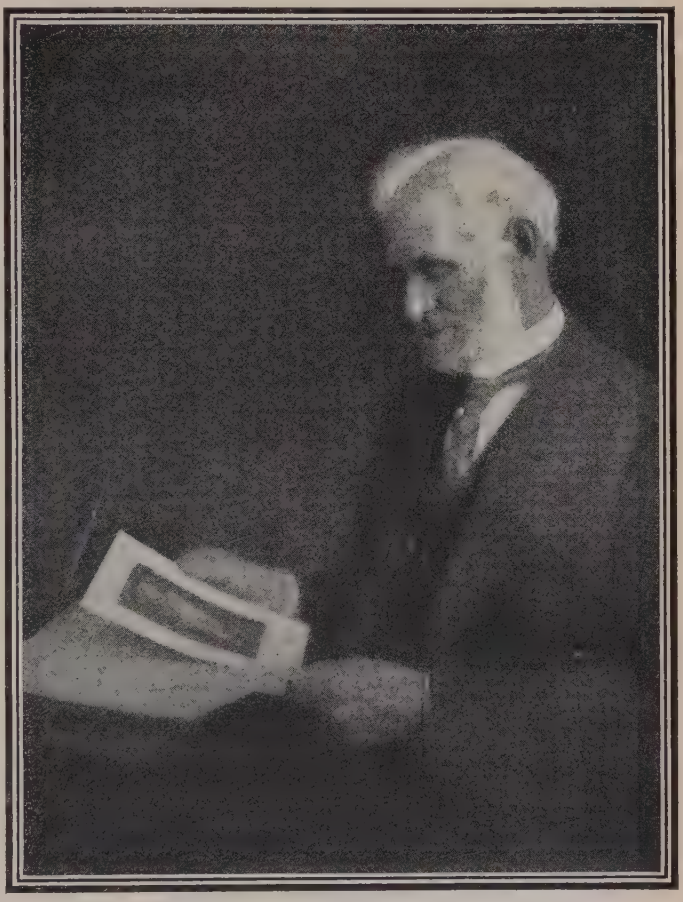
As to the question of autonomy, M. Preiss, in a debate in the Landesausschuss, or Provincial Committee, recently declared with great force that their struggle for it was useless. The promises that it would be given were valueless; the Germans required from the Alsatians guarantees of assimilation and proof of their German sentiments. A miracle would have to be performed to change the German point of view. The Alsatians would receive other promises, and again there would be disillusionment. "They would wait quietly for a more favorable destiny to bring the liberties for which they had always fought to the renown of Alsace-Lorraine."

THE "DIAL'S" OUTLOOK ON LITERATURE

THAT admirable literary journal, the *Dial,* of Chicago, which has just rounded three decades of continuous publication under the same editorial auspices, gives frank expression in its issue of April 1 to certain rather somber reflections on "The Bankruptcy of Literature." The *Dial* maintains that "if bankruptcy be a failure to meet just obligations, there is a good deal to be said for the view that modern literature is dangerously close to the insolvent state." Many of our modern writers, in the *Dial's* opinion, are frantically striving for an extension of credit. "To achieve novelty at whatever cost is the sum of their ambition, for thus alone is their poverty-stricken estate to be for a time concealed. If they can make themselves sufficiently startling, they may hope to seem impressive."

Prof. Barrett Wendell, of Harvard, has declared the *Dial* to be "the most unbiased and sensible organ of American criticism." Its judgments are almost invariably sane and well-considered. Its warnings, therefore, are not to be lightly dismissed as the utterances of the chronic pessimist. The *Dial* itself in the thirty years of its existence has done much to encourage sound and wholesome literature in this country, and it is not because it believes the present situation hopeless that it seeks to expose the demoralizing tendencies of the time, but rather in pursuit of its mission to speak frankly at all times and to be honest with its readers. It is this candid, outspoken comment on literary conditions that has made the *Dial* so useful and respected as an organ of criticism in the past. It is a thankless office, perhaps, but one that cannot well be dispensed with. While the *Dial* welcomes new writers, it is not prepared to claim for even the best of them a parity of importance with the best of those Victorian authors whose deaths have been chronicled since 1880. If "politics and private avarice" were evil influences in Emerson's day, they are quite as pervasive now, in the *Dial's* opinion.

Mr. Francis F. Browne has been editor of the *Dial* since its first number appeared in May, 1880. For twelve years he issued the periodical as a monthly, but for the past eighteen years it has been a fortnightly. The *Dial* has never missed an issue and its stability of management is almost unique in American journalism. Its editor has made us all his debtors many times. His has been a quiet but effective influence in the nation's literary development which we hope may be continued far into the future.



MR. FRANCIS F. BROWNE, EDITOR OF THE "DIAL"

A CLERGYMAN ON REAL REFORM OF THE THEATER

THAT the theater as an institution is the strangest and most remarkable combination of good and bad that society knows anything about is the deliberate conviction of the Rev. Charles M. Sheldon, author of "In His Steps." Writing in the *Independent* Dr. Sheldon says: "No other institution which is supposed to be a part of our civilization dares contain such a strange medley. The church is, for the most part, at least decently moral in its worship, its services, its entertainments, and its social life generally. It would not dare be anything else. The average school is for the most part giving to the civilized community good things in an overwhelming majority. But the theater, with an eye to box-receipts mainly, gives the people a purpose play one night and shows up the next with things so indecent that they could not be seen or spoken on the street or repeated out loud in any company of men and women, outside the theater, without a storm of protest."

Largely on this account Dr. Sheldon himself rarely goes to the theater, because he does not know what he is liable to run into; but with the help of some newspaper reporters he recently summed up the character of twenty-seven shows that visited his town:

> Five of the twenty-seven were clean and good, had some definite lesson to teach, without a syllable or scene throughout that could offend the most fastidious man or woman. Seven of the twenty-seven were of the doubtful order,—that is, they were for the most part good as to acting and such matters, but contained at least suggestive dialogue or questionable ethical teaching. The remaining fifteen were what could truthfully be called bad in the sense of suggestiveness; or the theme of the play itself revolved about some phase of human frailty, the discussion of which by the theater, as experience shows, does not help to better conditions but rather incites the passions, just as hanging used to do when it was performed in public. It is not a deterrent to evil, but rather a pandering to vulgar things, leaving in the mind a brown deposit which gradually coats the finer sensibility of virtue or takes the bloom off the necessary innocence of youth.

As to the effect of the theater as an institution on the chronic theatergoer, Dr. Sheldon finds from his limited experience that this influence is not very permanent in its actual doing of righteousness. On the other hand, he does find "a more or less blasé condition of mind."

> The theater seems to create an artificial atmosphere. It is glamour and dream life. Young men who are caught by the fascination of the nightly attendance on the theater become dissatisfied with real life. The atmosphere of the play affects them not as an incentive toward the cleaner and more ambitious righteousness but rather acts as a sensational tickling of certain emotional parts of their nature, and there is no question whatever concerning the rousing of certain passions in the inveterate theatergoer which, as far as my observation goes, tend towards demoralization of character.

There is no doubt that Dr. Sheldon is perfectly right when he says that "the trouble with most theatergoers is the failure to discriminate. They go to good and bad alike." If the actor or actress is first class, that is sufficient for them, although "the play itself may be rotten to the core and the teaching objectionable in the extreme." Dr. Sheldon complains that church members will condemn the things they see and hear, yet not one of them will register a protest by leaving the house. This leads Dr. Sheldon to comment severely on what seems to him to be a remarkable inconsistency where the theater is concerned. It is this:

> Our civilized cities are vulgarized by staring billboards which depict women indecently clad advertising theatrical presentations. Very few persons seem to think anything is wrong about this; but if the persons portrayed on the billboards were suddenly to come to life and get down off the boards and walk along the street the law of any town in America would instantly arrest them for indecent exposure. The same thing is true of the things that are said and done on the stage. Actors and actresses will say and do things on the stage of a theater which could not be said and done on the street or on the sidewalk of any town without subjecting them to arrest. . . . There seems to be one rule for the theater and another for common, every-day life.

Dr. Sheldon cites the following editorial comment on a play given in a university town where scores of college boys and girls attended:

> This play is the story of the almost brutal portrayal of the utter selfishness of a man who, to gain his own desire, would sacrifice even his own wife. . . . The scene in ——— has much that is not nice in it; there is much that is ugly, much that is revolting in the play; and it is not one for quite young girls to see attended by boys as escorts.

He asks what excuse the theater can offer for the presentation of a thing like this, which

is a play not nice for boys and girls to see, yet which scores of them did see.

The gravest charge that the reverend author brings against the theater is that it is run in the interest of "big money." It is not, he thinks, too sweeping an assertion to say that "those who are in control of it are for the most part governed by the box receipts. If they thought the dramatization of the Bible would draw a crowd they would be willing to put it on." Real reform of the theater will come when the business is controlled by Christian men and women who are in the theater not for the money to be got out of it but for the good they can do. Though there are some helpful and noble plays on the stage to-day their number is, says Dr. Sheldon, exceedingly small; and even with these it is doubtful whether the effect of a good play on the theatergoer has not been tremendously exaggerated. Not until there is a change of purpose on the part of those who carry it on as a business can any real reform of the theater come.

DOES IT PAY TO SERVE THE UNITED STATES?

THE government blue book published at Washington shows that at the present time the federal employees in the civil service, exclusive of those connected with the Post-Office Department, but including the officers of the army and navy, number approximately 146,000. If the postal employees be included and also the enlisted men in the military and naval service the total number of persons on the federal payroll is nearly half a million. In beginning an article on the subject of government service in the *Atlantic Monthly* for May, an "Ex-Official" suggests a comparison, as respects numbers, between the civil service of the United States and several of the most prominent callings,—for example, the teaching profession, in which the census of 1900 showed that 446,000 persons were employed. He shows, further, that the employees of the federal Government are much more numerous than all the physicians, clergymen, and lawyers in the United States combined, and almost as many as the aggregate of all the manufacturers, officials, bookkeepers, and accountants.

As to the question, Does it pay to accept civil employment under the federal Government? this "Ex-Official" thinks that the answer depends upon the sex of the employee. If the employee is a woman, the answer should be, Yes. The government service offers work which is reasonable and agreeable, considerate treatment, generous vacations, sick-leave allowance, and a living salary. He says it is a fact that the girls in the department stores of the great cities often receive no more pay than do the floor scrubbers in the department buildings at Washington.

If, on the other hand, the employee is a man, and a young one, the answer depends principally on his own temperament, ambition, and ability. If he is easy-going, indolent, and of moderate ability, a small income, so long as it is certain and attended by moderate exercise and little anxiety, may be a very desirable end to be attained. If, however, the young man is alert, energetic, resourceful, and ambitious, the "Ex-Official" warns him to beware of the government service, since the qualities which he possesses, while in commercial life they may lead to success, in the government service, sad to relate, generally invite failure.

In spite of the growth of civil-service reform sentiment and the continuance in power of one political party, the tenure of office for all holders of bureau positions is still very short. In the last decade the average period of incumbency of a dozen such positions was two years and eight months. In the lower grades the tenure is indefinite; good behavior and moderate ability to perform routine work are nowadays likely to be rewarded by life-long employment.

This writer does not deny that it is possible for clerks, either men or women, beginning at the bottom to rise to high positions, but he points out that the process of promotion means increasing uncertainty of tenure, and to support this contention he traces the actual experience of scores of competent men. "I have been offered the headship of my bureau three times," said a minor government official not long since, "and I never have dared to accept it. Of course, it meant promotion and greatly increased pay, and I longed to accept it, but I knew it also meant a short period of official life at the top, and then,—out, out into the street. Official position is a luxury, and the man who accepts it should have private resources to provide for

a day when the newspapers publish a rumor that So-and-So 'has decided to resign.' As for me," he added, "I am a poor man; I can take no chances." "Refusal of responsibility and advancement for such reasons must always result," says "Ex-Official," "in distinct loss of self-respect and ambition."

Another complaint that this writer makes is that while in commercial life responsibility is definitely fixed so that as a man is justly blamed for poor work he is also praised for real efficiency, in government service inefficiency is not sufficiently condemned, and ability and fine service receive, in the long run, little consideration.

"Ex-Official" shows that even with the system as it is the influence of personality is still to be reckoned with. He declares that no executive within recollection exerted such direct influence on the federal employees themselves as did President Roosevelt. He was not content to listen to the perfunctory reports of cabinet officers, but claimed and exercised the privilege of dealing directly with any bureau chief or subordinate who could aid the executive with expert knowledge of important problems. "The effect of this policy, while not always pleasing to cabinet officers, was inspiring in the extreme to subordinate officials; it spurred them to unprecedented zeal, which in turn was diffused by them among their subordinates. A new and surprising energy and general awakening of enthusiasm for tasks made dull by long routine took possession of the federal service."

The conclusion of "Ex-Official" is that a man who amounts to anything and settles down as an employee of the federal Government, whether of high degree or low, is an air-plant. He has no roots in solid earth, and any strong political breeze may blow him away. "If you would have roots, settle in the home community and grow up in normal fashion; then with a competency and town or city backing you may seek Washington, and find in the government service an agreeable incident, but only an incident, in your career."

KARAKTER—A SYMPTOM OF YOUNG EGYPT

"KARAKTER!....I want my boy to learn Karàkter, so that by its virtue he may become a power in the land."

In these words the venerable, white-bearded Egyptian fellah recently petitioned the British official to educate his son. We read about the incident and its significance in a vivid article by Marmaduke Pickthall in the *Cornhill Magazine* for April, particularly in view of the progress of ex-President Roosevelt through the valley of the Nile and his vigorous remarks on the tremendous significance of character to the Egyptian individuals and organizations he met.

When questioned as to what Karàkter meant to him, the old Egyptian declared that the English-speaking people "alone of all mankind possess the secret of it, but it can be acquired in other schools for money." Pursuing the subject further the old man asserted that Karàkter is not a science. "It is strength and durability of purpose. It is power of judgment. Some have it in them; some have not. It is not a thing which can be taught like mathematics." The old man expressed himself as willing to pay twenty pounds a month for "sound instruction in Karàkter."

The article goes on to tell how he actually sent his son to England to learn Karàkter at an English school and at the University of Cambridge. Upon the young Arab's return to Egypt he addressed his superior in the government offices with the familiarity of language he had imbibed at Cambridge. This was resented with oaths on the part of the English official. When the young Arab asked an explanation, asserting that he had been to Cambridge and the other was not a university man, he was told that an Englishman was always superior and that for an Egyptian to address an Englishman on terms of familiarity was "an offense unthinkable."

The young Arab's resentment of the Englishman's curses convinced the father that Karàkter was not worth while acquiring. In reply to the young man's determination to join the Nationalists, the father, voicing the fatalistic point of view of the great mass of the Egyptians of all classes, said:

> What Son of the Nile before him ever resented the curses of one in authority? Are not our backs and the soles of our feet still sore from the Turkish whips? Yet see, my son resents this cursing which to me is nothing. He must join the malcontents, the wastrels of the land, because of it. He is become even worse than an Englishman: he is all Karàkter.

OKLAHOMA'S EXPERIENCE OF BANK-DEPOSIT INSURANCE

IT was in February, 1908, that the compulsory insurance of deposits in the State banks of Oklahoma was first carried into effect. In September, 1909, occurred the failure of the Columbia Bank & Trust Company, a State bank having the largest deposits in Oklahoma. In the meantime the State banks had increased to a marvelous extent, both in number and in deposits; the national banks, on the other hand, having decreased in number and remained stationary as to deposits. In the *Quarterly Journal of Economics,* Mr. Thornton Cooke, in the course of an exhaustive survey of the whole question of bank-deposit insurance, relates in detail the proceedings that followed the failure of the Columbia Bank & Trust Company, which was Oklahoma's first practical experience of the working of the new law.

It appears that in September, 1908, the company showed deposits of $365,000, of which $110,000 was due to banks. In September, 1909, its deposits had increased to $2,806,008.61, classified as follows:

Individual deposits	$1,321,929.31
State Treasurer's deposit	172,383.13
Bank deposits	1,311,696.17

It will thus be seen that within a year the individual deposits had increased from $255,000 to $1,300,000 and the bank deposits from $110,000 to $1,300,000, a truly remarkable growth. On the night of September 28, 1909, the Bank Commissioner took charge of the bank, and the next morning he opened the doors to pay off the depositors as provided by the guaranty law. According to Mr. Cooke several hundred persons assembled, but "there was no such excitement as would have attended the closing of so large a bank whose deposits were not insured." The Commissioner announced that all deposits would without question be paid in full, and proceeded to pay depositors. At this time there was but $400,000 in the guaranty fund; and the liabilities to be liquidated amounted to more than $2,000,000. Under the Oklahoma law emergency assessments may be made any year up to 2 per cent. of deposits. In this case the emergency assessment was fixed at ¾ of 1 per cent. of the average deposits of 1908. Under this assessment the State banks had to pay $248,000. Owing to the relations said to have existed between the bank and State officials eleven protests against this assessment were received. As stated above, the Bank Commissioner began to pay depositors the morning after taking charge. Mr. Cooke thus describes the sequence of events:

> The resources of the Columbia Bank and of the guaranty fund together were not nearly enough to go round. . . . It was decided to pay the individual depositors first; but even they could not all be paid at once, and charges of discrimination were inevitable. The small or moderate accounts were in the main paid promptly. . . . A month after the failure only $411,000 of deposits remained unpaid, an extraordinary showing, probably without a parallel. . . . The total expense of the liquidation had been only $2400, also a remarkable showing. . . . The liquidation of the bank proceeded rapidly; and on November 13, 1909, the Commissioner stated that the amount due to banks had been reduced from $1,300,000 at the time of the failure to $190,000, and on December 6 he announced that the State Banking Board, for whom he was acting, had then on hand sufficient cash to pay all individual depositors and all holders of certificates of deposits.

Prior to the failure of the Columbia Bank & Trust Company the Farmers' National Bank of Tulsa and the First State Bank of Kiefer, with allied management, had gone under. The latter had $30,000 on deposit in the Tulsa bank. Its deposits of $78,000 were promptly paid with the use of about $40,000 of the State guaranty fund.

Was the insurance of deposits to blame for the failure of the largest bank in Oklahoma? Mr. Cooke says: "Obviously not . . . yet the Oklahoma insurance plan cannot be relieved of all responsibility for the Oklahoma City failure." Quoting Mr. Cooke further:

> Relying upon the insurance, Oklahoma banks, and outside banks, too, felt safe in carrying deposit accounts with the Columbia. . . . Outside of Oklahoma the bank advertised widely for deposits at 4 per cent., "deposits guaranteed by the law of Oklahoma." Such advertising drew a good deal of outside money into the Columbia. It is evident, then, that, just as critics predicted, the insurance of deposits has made it easier for an incompetent management to get deposits. The insurance system is not responsible for the failure of the Columbia Bank & Trust Company, but it is responsible for the magnitude of it.

Mr. Cooke calls attention to certain questions raised by the Oklahoma experiment as

to the practicability of State insurance of deposits: (1) The connection of a bank with politics,—a charge brought against the management of the Columbia. (2) The size of single risks. On June 23, 1909, the total deposits in Oklahoma State banks was about $47,000,000; the deposits of the Columbia at the time of the failure amounted to $3,000,000, or 6 per cent. of the total amount at risk. (3) The Oklahoma experiment has shown that, although depositors in failed banks may be paid rapidly, payment immediately upon a failure cannot be promised. On this last point Mr. Cooke remarks:

It took only one failure to show this, and another great failure might have broken the Oklahoma system down. What would have happened if another large bank had failed soon after the Columbia, and if its president had not been able to turn over valuable securities, as the president of the Columbia did? Another assessment would have been necessary to pay depositors immediately, as provided by law. Would the banks have paid another assessment without a fight? Probably not. If they had been forced to pay would not sympathy for the banks have led to the repeal of the law? Probably it would. The Oklahoma plan cannot be a success until a guaranty fund has become very large.

A study of the Oklahoma experiment gives the following conclusions: There is need of greater assurance of the safety of deposits than is afforded by mere inspection and supervision. The State cannot undertake to pay deposits in full as soon as a bank closes. The insurance of bank deposits assists the growth of bad banks as well as of good. Under a State deposit insurance system the risk that will be assumed on a single bank cannot be limited.

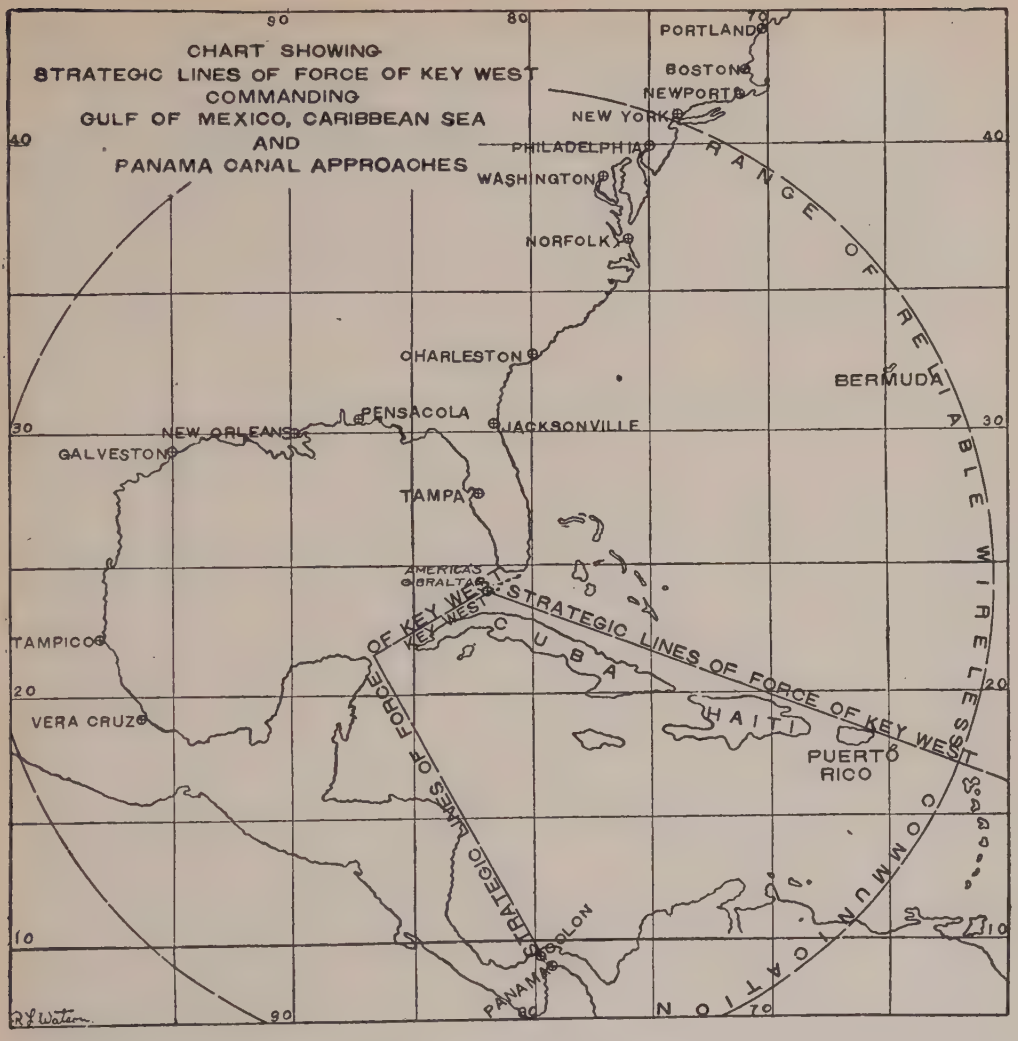
AN AMERICAN GIBRALTAR AT KEY WEST

THAT we should have not one Gilbraltar only, but several,—in fact, that "American Gibraltars" be placed along our coasts to the order of our War and Navy Departments,—is the novel proposal made by Commodore W. H. Beehler, U. S. N., commandant of the Seventh Naval District, whose arguments in favor of its adoption appear in the March-April number of the *Journal* of the Military Service Institution.

Before outlining his plan, Commodore Beehler urges the absolute necessity of closer relations between the army and the navy. The facilities of both services should, he claims, be equally available to each other. The guns of both should be of the same general type, so that the ammunition might be interchangeable. Supplies and stores should all be of one standard for both army and navy; and the rations, commissary, and subsistence stores should also be practically the same. It will, of course, be always necessary to have the command of the engaging forces intrusted to one commander-in-chief, on the spot, whether an army or a naval officer. Especially should the artillery corps and the navy be intimately associated for coast defense; and the Commodore emphasizes the fact that upon such close association depends the defense of the approaches to our naval bases. He is "convinced of the absolute necessity of making a great military and naval base at Key West, Fla. This should be the American Gibraltar."

As England has secured domination over Europe by means of her strategic base at Gibraltar, so must we adopt this geographical position for the command of the Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean Sea, and all the approaches to the Panama Canal at the most southern point of the United States. The completion of the railroad extension to Key West as the southern terminal of overland communication makes all the resources of the country available here, and it is the most commanding site on this continent.

Commodore Beehler admits that Key West is a decided contrast to the Rock of Gibraltar, "as different as the old world is from the new." But, although there are no high hills or great rocks at Key West to give the impression of invulnerability, there are instead lines of reefs and shoals which make a protected anchorage for all the navies of the world. The present defenses of Key West at Fort Taylor are inadequate; the approaches to Key West should be protected; and the armament of Fort Taylor should be transferred to forts on the outer reefs. Now it would cost millions to build forts on these outer reefs; indeed the expenditure "would be so great that the erection of a chain of modern turret forts along the outer reefs could scarcely be considered." The necessity is, however, urgent; and intimate connection of the navy and coast artillery furnishes a solution whereby the enormous cost of building modern turret forts may be avoided. Commodore Beehler's proposal is to utilize as permanent turret forts vessels which might be assigned as navy-



coast-defenders, such vessels to be installed on the outer reefs. The navy has four double turreted monitors,—the *Amphitrite, Miantonomoh, Puritan,* and *Terror,*—no longer serviceable for the navy, but whose hulls, armor, and armament are all in good condition. These vessels, when their propelling machinery and one boiler shall have been removed, will be permanently imbedded on the outer reefs seven miles south of Key West Island. In illustration of his scheme Commodore Beehler furnishes a plan of the *Amphitrite* installed in a small harbor on the north side of Rock Key. A dike is built around the monitor, and filled in with mud, so that she is completely imbedded.

The level of the dike will be carried 8 feet above mean low water, with riprap on top of all. The deck of the monitor will be about 8 feet above mean low water. The turrets and the turrets' guns will be carried just above as when afloat. The superstructure of the *Amphitrite* may be still further protected by carrying the riprap over on board, so as to completely protect the superstructure with earthwork. . . . This ship furnishes a complete modern, double-turreted fort, with every necessary feature to operate the guns and quarter the officers and men of the garrison. The guns and machinery would all be perfectly solid, and the gun platform would be absolutely stable.

The cost of constructing the necessary dike is estimated at $50,000, and the time required for building would be ninety days after the removal of the propelling machinery. The imbedded ship would remain intact as a fort indefinitely,—for fifty or a hundred years.

Commodore Beehler would install the other three monitors on adjacent reefs, so

that "the range of the guns from these four double-turreted monitor forts would command a large part of the Straits of Florida." This utilization of out-of-date battleships, if adopted generally, would afford most valuable additions to our coast fortifications. As regards Key West in particular, the proposed series of monitor forts is necessary to protect the naval base there. The command of the Straits of Florida includes that of the Yucatan Channel, and the forts, with the assistance of the navy-coast-defenders, would thus completely close the Gulf of Mexico and the approaches to the Caribbean Sea from the west.

Commodore Beehler maintains that the appellative "America's Gibraltar" is justified by the analogous position of Key West to that of Gibraltar in Spain, coupled with the greater strategic advantages of the former; and that if similar "Gibraltars" are constructed at suitable points along our coasts no foreign foe would dare to attack us.

CONFESSIONS OF A LITERARY DRUMMER

AMONG those unconnected with the publishing business the idea that a really good book sells itself is probably widespread; but the writer of "The Confessions of a Literary Drummer" in the April *Bookman* shows, in that highly entertaining sketch, that such a view is a quite erroneous one. Convinced that selling literature was his forte, the Literary Drummer carefully read the books he proposed to sell, studied them, and pondered over them, endeavoring to determine what features would be most likely to appeal to his customers. His first venture proved a sad setback for him, as he failed altogether to effect a sale. He tells his readers:

My customer was an elderly lady, unmarried, who having been brought up in the bookstore of her father had upon his death succeeded to the business.

"She has been in a bookstore thirty years," I said to myself. "Therefore she knows books; she appreciates good books; she loves them."

In the back of her little emporium, where I was surrounded, it is true, by books, but also by such unliterary objects as rolls of wall paper, stacks of writing tablets, calendars, souvenir postal cards, shelves full of ledgers, account books, and filing cases, I unpacked my trunk and displayed my wares. And as I drew forth each book, or cover, or few leaves of paper, or whatever I possessed which represented a book that was going to be, I dwelt long and lovingly upon it. I told the story of each novel, and I endeavored to tell it to that old lady in just the way that would have made it appeal to Walter Pater or Henry James. To be sure, my little lecture was accompanied by some disconcerting incidents. A phonograph in the front of the store squawked "Waltz Me Around Again, Willie," with monotonous persistency and maddening iteration. And it seemed fated that whenever I was in the act of making a particularly telling point some customer should approach, upon which my audience would desert me instantly to sell a lead pencil or ten cents' worth of writing paper. Besides, my customer's manner of receiving the information I imparted to her was, to say the least, uninspiring. It consisted of a repetition of the syllables, "um-um." If I said a thing was very good, she said, "Um-um." If I confessed it was rather poor, she said, "Um-um." And um-um, in a mechanical and non-committal tone, was the only response to my most eloquent periods. When the trunk was empty and I was through, I paused, flushed and excited.

"Well," said the elderly lady, in a disparaging tone, "is that all you've got? I hoped your house would have something *real* good this year."

"Good?" I cried. "Great goodness, madam, they're all good; there's nothing but good books strewn all around here."

"No," she said, shaking her head, "your books don't look pretty. I don't believe I feel like placing an order this year."

The same afternoon he sold the proprietor of a department store "1500 wretched little paper books, with awful, staring covers and insides, which no intelligent child of ten could by any possibility mistake as literature." He continued to sell,—or rather to try to sell,—books "by pointing to the features which would have made them appeal to Walter Pater or Henry James," with the result that he momentarily expected a telegram from his house summoning him home in disgrace. It was "in a dingy hotel in a dingy town" that the Literary Drummer at last "saw a light." We quote his own words:

My customer had deserted me, after a half-hour of evident abstraction on his part and desperate but waning enthusiasm on mine. He crossed the hall and entered the sample room of a fellow professional, a brother literary drummer, where books were strewn on sheet-covered tables. And, I gazing from afar, saw my erstwhile customer comfortably lounging in a chair, while my comrade in art, coat off, hat on, gesticulated, and in strident tones harangued.

"Now, Joe," said he, talking round a cigar that had apparently grown fast to his mouth, "I'll give you the straight dope. This novel

here is merchandise, and you want a hundred copies; this novel is literature, and one will about do you."

With astonishment and dismay I saw the customer nod assent to this apportionment of merchandise and literature. "Merchandise, and you want a hundred copies; literature, and one will about do you." Shades of the stylists, and men of letters; sacred names of Walter Pater and Henry James!

Seeking his fellow traveler out he asked him: "Is it true that books of genuine literary merit do not appeal to the trade?" The reply he received was: "It's the straight goods. Literature don't make a hit nowadays." "But," said the Literary Drummer, "can't we educate the public through the bookseller? Can't we elevate the taste of the trade? Can't we appeal by showing the artistic merit of a book?" To which his friend replied:

"You bet we can't, unless we're millionaires traveling for pleasure. Don't try to shoot any hot air like you mentioned into the booksellers in the small towns; but play the old, sure, reliable favorites. If you've got a new book by a popular author, tell 'em it's absolutely the best he's ever done. If the author's new, tell 'em it's a crackerjack good story,—the heroine a peach, something doing all the time, and a happy ending. That's the dope."

At the next town the Literary Drummer interviewed the book buyer of a large department store, from whom he learned that what makes a book sell is in the order mentioned: (1) The author; (2) the advertising; (3) the cover and the paper jacket; (4) illustrations, and (5) a good catchy title.

At the same time I carried on a diligent investigation into the literary canons of the people I met. The answers were vague, and as a rule could be reduced to two fundamental reasons. One,—a book sold well "because our people liked it." Two,—a book did not sell at all, it stuck, was a plug, "because our people didn't like it." Sometimes a dealer would go behind these fundamental reasons and feel that the publisher was in some mysterious way responsible for the failure of his books, when they did fail. But I noticed that when, on the other hand, a book succeeded, the credit attributed to the publisher was most meager.

Still seeking information, he addressed himself to a customer whom he found in his cellar "engaged in the prosaic task of breaking up boxes." He thus describes the interview:

"Of what character are your most profitable books?" I asked.

"There ain't any money in books," he replied, with a vicious bang of the hammer.

"Of course," I replied hastily. "So many booksellers feel that way. But what kind of books should you say are least unprofitable?"

"Well," he said glumly, "I sell mostly fiction."

"Ah," I said, with the zest of a biologist tracking a germ to its lair, "and what kind of people buy the most fiction from you?"

He wiped his forehead reflectively.

"The young ladies in the boarding-schools round here buy a good deal," he replied. . . . "And I always have some lady customers who'll buy a good love story; and sometimes a man I know will come in to get something to kill time while he's on the train or his family's away. There was quite a movement among some of the married ladies of this town to get their husbands to stay home and read novels instead of playing poker down to the Elks' Club. But that's sorter died out. . . . I tell you what people want in a novel is a good story," cried my customer above the crash of breaking boxes. "They ain't buying Bibles, or text-books, or scientific pamphlets when they get fiction; and they ain't crying out to be improved when they're tired and want to be amused with a good yarn."

The Literary Drummer regarded his customer reflectively. Here was a man who at Christmas time sold books; at Valentine's Day, valentines; at Easter, Easter cards; at the Fourth of July, firecrackers; at Hallowe'en, favors, and at Christmas again, books. Between whiles he sold "letter paper, ledgers, souvenir post cards, wall paper, crêpe paper, lead pencils, playing cards and fountain pens, typewriters and phonographs." Of what use was it to appeal to this man, "bounded by the narrow horizon of a small merchant and circumscribed by the narrow life of a small town, with the standards of Walter Pater and Henry James"? That very day the Literary Drummer received from his house the sheets and the cover of a new novel with which he made a new departure. We read:

Upon the cover was the head of a girl, brilliant as to complexion, luxuriant as to hair, adorable as to her hat. The title was The Princess something or other. The story, well, I read it during a railroad journey, in a dim and dirty car, riding over an awful track, through dreary scenery; and the journey was endurable. The book was not what I should call literature . . . but in the language of my drummer friend, "there was something doing all the time" in that story. It gave me some hours of innocent if not very improving amusement.

The next day I set that story in the place of honor on my sample table.

"Well, what's new?" asked the customer of the day.

"This," said I, holding up The Princess something or other, "a crackerjack, a winner. It's merchandise," I cried, endeavoring to keep my cigar from tumbling out of my mouth, "and you want a hundred copies. And this," I went on, holding up the book I had formerly advocated with enthusiasm and held up to admiration as a model of style, characterization and craftsmanship, "this is literature. One copy will about do you."

THE FATE OF THE FINNS

ONCE more the attention of the entire world has been turned to Finland and the brave struggle of the Finnish people to maintain their liberties against the campaign of Russification. The Czar has just ordered the authority of the Duma extended over Finland, thus abrogating the organic law of the land which he swore to respect. In this connection there is particular interest in an article on Finland and its people by the celebrated German philosophical writer Prof. Rudolf Eucken, which appears in a recent number of *Nord und Süd*.

After pointing out the differences between the Swedish and the strictly Finnish sections of the population, this German writer says:

It was only in the last century, notably in its latter half, that there arose in the Finnish-speaking portion a desire for intellectual independence,—a movement which attracted considerable talent and penetrated with the ardor of youth into all the varied branches of culture. There is now a comprehensive literature in Finnish, a highly developed press, a Finnish theater, etc. Alongside of this, however, there was a lively and fruitful Swedish activity. Here the Swedish Literary Society has the leading place. It has contributed valuable publications regarding the development of intellectual life in Finland, but it, too, is in full sympathy with the progressive activities of modern life. The two coincident movements naturally led to occasional conflicts and threatened to cause a split among the people. But these very conflicts served to arouse and strengthen their spiritual side; while religious convictions, the zealous participation in Western culture, and, above all, an ardent love for their country, for its calm, impressive, and austere nature, its boundless forests its multitudinous seas remained a common possession.

Thus, says Professor Eucken, in spite of opposing elements, a common national consciousness and a distinctive culture, has been developed in Finland,—" a culture which enters into the problems of modern life with the utmost fervor and at the same time contributes its own peculiar traits."

But this happy development, we are reminded further, was made possible only by the sense of security from outside felt by the Finns, and the other fact that their internal independence was not threatened in any way.

When, in 1809, Sweden ceded Finland to Russia it was in no wise made a Russian province, and Alexander I. solemnly promised the preservation of its religion, its constitution, and its laws,—a pledge that has been renewed by every succeeding Czar. Thus Finland had its own Parliament, tariff laws, banks, mint, and postal system, etc. Protected from outside by Russia, it, on the other hand, was Russia's loyal confederate, showing itself ever ready to come to her aid. This fortunate state of affairs was first seriously threatened at the close of the past century. The greater the influence attained by the Russian Nationalists the greater became the encroachments upon Finnish rights. In 1903 the Finnish constitution was revoked and a dictatorship introduced. The internal changes in Russia in 1905, however, consequent upon the Japanese war, had a decidedly favorable effect upon Finnish affairs; the anti-constitutional laws were abrogated and a diet was convoked, reorganized on the basis of universal suffrage.

But ere long new complications arose, and Finland's autonomy is in as great danger today as it was before. Conditions, to be sure, are not as simple as at the beginning of the nineteenth century; the inevitable growth of reciprocal relations must be taken into account. The Finns are a bright, sensible people, and would undoubtedly not stubbornly oppose any legitimate claims,—but there is a vast difference between enforcing those claims by despotic command and negotiating them on equal terms.

It is a breach of faith, Herr Eucken concludes, that is about to be perpetrated,—a course of action that does not by any means enlist general Russian sympathy but one advocated by the bureaucracy and the rigidly Nationalist party.

The oppression of Finland involves not only a question of right.

It is beyond doubt that the loss of her political autonomy would soon be followed by the destruction of her national and spiritual peculiarities, as her happy progress was most intimately connected with her political independence. This destruction would be all the more deplorable, since it is not a case of a higher civilization lifting a lower one to itself, but a lower dragging the other to its plane. For highly as we may esteem Russia's literary achievements, the intellectual powers astir in that vast realm; much as we may expect from the awakening of the slumbering deeps of the masses, that the Finns as a whole stand on a higher level and would lose by having their country converted into a mere province may be confidently asserted. It would be a great thing, a shining example for all mankind, should the decision of the Russian representative body incline to the side of right. It would at the same time be in the real interest of Russia, for she has, in good truth, problems enough on her hands without adding a new one,—and even a great nation acts unwisely in transforming by brutal oppression a well-disposed and faithful ally into a deeply aggrieved opponent.

FINANCE AND BUSINESS

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH

SAFETY

AMONG the thousands of letters received from investing readers of this magazine since the 1907 panic there stands out conspicuously one now in hand. It is a striking proof that the principle of investment insurance through risk-splitting, the method that safeguards the millions of the banks, insurance companies, and universities, can be applied just as well to the thousands of the average man.

The writer of the letter in question is a California salesman. He had previously inquired about a certain building and loan association in Ohio. He was going to put in $1000.

The reply to him praised the number, size, and good management of such associations in Ohio, which is second only to Pennsylvania in this respect. But the suggestion was made that he had better not put all his money in any single place.

Unexpected was the letter the Californian sent back:

> I desire to thank you most sincerely for your letter. My savings are already distributed about as follows: I have about $7000 invested in *thirty-two* building and loan associations in Ohio. These pay about 5¾ per cent. dividends. I have $10,000 in *ten* of the largest and strongest savings banks in New York City, *one* in Albany, and *one* in Buffalo. From the associations I have received in dividends about $4750. From the savings banks I have been credited with interest for about $3400.

That letter spells safety. Humanly speaking, Ohio building and loan associations and New York savings banks do not fail. But even if one did fail, its effect on the salesman's investment would be slight. Not dependent on it alone for ready money, he will hardly become frightened and liquidate at the low point. Even a total failure, a thing not to be expected, could affect his savings as a whole very little.

THE SELF-DEVOURING MINE

IF any example is needed that one stock cannot form an investment all by itself it can be found in the situation last month of Granby.

Here was a high grade New England company operating mines in British Columbia that had been yielding dividends for years. The directors and managers were beyond reproach,—a little too conservative, it was thought. Yet the stock, which brought 151 not so long ago and sold as the year opened at 112, dropped abruptly toward the end of March to 37.

The 2500 stockholders and the financial community were aghast. It appeared that certain ore reserves, which had been put at twenty million tons five years before the last report, and estimated in that report as having "largely increased" and being "sufficient for many years to come," were only in effect about six million tons.

For a mine using four thousand tons a day the end was not far off,—if these figures were correct.

Engineers and experts were hurried to the spot. Their investigations and explorations will consume several months. Nobody believes that the directors are selling or will sell their stock, or that they will fail to do everything they ought to do. It is a pleasure to chronicle these facts.

But many investors are realizing for the first time a couple of hard facts: (1) A mine is self-consuming. It lives out of capital; it spends its own principal; its stock ought to yield two or three times more than a stock of a railroad or factory, so that the prudent investor can set aside a sinking fund. (2) Proven earning power and honesty of managers are not enough to constitute any single stock by itself an investment.

FINANCIAL INDIGESTION

WHEN they asked Mr. Pierpont Morgan what the trouble was back in 1902,—why the stock markets were falling and business men couldn't get enough ready money,—he made his famous allusion to "undigested securities." New stocks and bonds and notes had been fed to investors a little too fast for them to swallow.

Mr. James J. Hill looked a little deeper in his equally noted diagnosis that a large number of said stocks, bonds, and notes were

not only undigested, but indigestible. Some of the biggest new mouthfuls, like the Mercantile Marine and United States Shipbuilding offerings, did not contain successful ingredients at all.

This year again the "new security" plate is piled high,—higher than ever, in fact. London broke all its previous records for any quarter of any year by a total of nearly half a billion of dollars, being some 20 per cent. above the record made in Boer War times and more than twice the normal.

Even provincial New York ran up a total for the quarter of $644,733,765, topping the record of the year before by more than two hundred and eighty millions.

Five minutes' talk with any active bond man anywhere in America will prove that this meal, about twice what the investor is accustomed to, has not yet been digested.

Least welcome is the short-term note. One railroad after another of high credit is found to be borrowing for two or three years. That is the most expensive kind of money a railroad gets. It has to pay a high interest rate. When the notes are refunded it has to pay another banker's commission, a clear loss of so many million dollars. A railroad likes to sell forty or fifty year bonds. When it doesn't, the supposition is that it can't,—on favorable terms.

Adding up the short-time borrowings of only fifteen companies, mostly railroad, January 1-April 16, a total is reached of $100,700,000.

This tells as loud as words that the men of big business are reluctant to tie money up.

As for women, trustees, merchants who have retired, and all dependents on income from investments, they are wise at such a time to buy a good banker's "specialties,"—securities that don't figure much in the traders' buy-and-sell game. Or they can stick to those bonds and notes that bring the cash back within five years or less.

International plans are being changed also. There was a check last month to the stream of thick bundles of nice, new bond and stock-certificates that had been flowing to London, Amsterdam, and Berlin.

Since European investors can't take any more of our stocks and bonds, and since we have been importing more and exporting less than has been the case at this season for fifteen years back, we have been forced into the third and least pleasant way of settling our enormous and rapidly growing debt to Europe. We have shipped gold.

BURMESE RICE AND AMERICAN GOLD

IF you should ask some busy friend in the bank, or store, or mill, or factory his opinion on the rice crop in Burma he would probably ask you where the joke lay.

He might remember, if he happened to be a reader of Kipling, that there was such a thing,—that when the British soldier lay

> By the old Burmese pagoda
> Looking eastward to the sea

there were rice fields in sight with mist on them.

But where is the connection?

It was only last month that a link neither humorous nor poetical, very practical indeed, could be traced between your friend's interests,—or your own, if you happen to be a lender or borrower of money,—and the hand-sickle harvesting of Burma rice on the other side of the world. Following out the connection reveals one deal in the great game of gold, as the great nations have come to play it within the last few years. The United States, as usual, loses the trick.

Under a splendid monsoon the rice and other Burmese crops have been breaking records. So have the demands upon the Bank of Bombay and the Bank of Bengal for cash. The planters must pay more hands than ever before, and the exporters must pay bigger bills from the planters and the steamship companies.

Although the two big East Indian banks raised their money rates to 7 per cent., the demands waxed even greater. The banks granted all the credit they could. Then they needed more gold. They drained the banks in Egypt. Finally, the Indian Council was obliged to sell in London a fortune of rupees that has never been equaled on a similar occasion,—no less than 150 lacs, about seven and a quarter millions of dollars,—demanding gold in exchange.

But London, too, had been "extending." Speculators were borrowing heavily to put up prices of Rhodesian mining stocks, and also rubber plantation stocks.

No other European nation wanted to give up its gold either. Russia is filling up her war chests; Paris decided her previous shipments would be enough, and so on.

But there is always New York. Although the United States needs gold in its business probably more than any other country at present, still it has no central bank, as each of the others have, to "raise the ante," as it

were, and thus keep the other players out in case of need.

Over here we have 23,000 banks, strictly separate and independent. Any one of them, it is true, could become patriotic, but it would thereby cease paying dividends.

In the first week of last month no less than $7,500,000 of gold was engaged for London from New York,—just the amount the Indian Council had called for.

This is very fine for the British colonies and dependencies. It is a little hard on American borrowers, however. The less gold there is in New York the higher the interest, other things being equal, that New York banks ask and get.

If you live in the "interior," your friend at the bank charges usually an excess over the New York interest rate,—greater or less, according to his distance,—when your friend at the mill or store wants to borrow. Every 1 per cent. raise in New York, therefore, means 50 cents additional cost to him for every $100 of six months' accommodation.

What can American borrowers do to get organized banking protection? That is another story.

THE MEN OF THE CENTRAL EUROPEAN BANKS

SOME of the missing answer to the question above can be dug out of a last month's Government publication. It is immensely more readable than the familiar dreary discussion on that bugbear of modern civilization, "The Banking and Currency Problem." It appears under the direction of the Monetary Commission, and is entitled:

"Interviews on the Banking and Currency Systems of England, France, Germany, Switzerland, Scotland, and Italy."

No essays here, but heart-to-heart talks with the Europeans who are actually doing what a certain section of publicists fear that Americans are not honest and statesmanlike enough to do,—namely, manage centralized banking organizations, which, each for its own nation, protect home borrowers as against foreign nations and home lenders.

For instance, when M. Pallain, Governor of the Bank of France, was asked by members of the Monetary Commission as to the position of his bank in times of political discussion, he answered:

"*No charge has ever been made that the bank favored or aided any political party.* There is never any claim that politics enters in any degree into the management of the bank. Except for the renewal of the charter in 1897, no legislation affecting the bank has been enacted since 1857."

Any French bank, no matter how remote, is not far from one of the five hundred offices of the Big Bank. Any "bill" or commercial note indorsed by a solvent merchant or other business man, and of the branch in question, will be received at said office of the Bank of France and "discounted," provided it runs no more than three months.

Whether it is a millionaire Parisian merchant that comes to borrow or the keeper of the tiniest provincial inn or store, the rate charged is always the same.

Naturally, M. Pallain was asked whether his bank could not make more money if he should raise rates in different cases, "as much as the traffic will bear,"—just as an American banker would. But he replied:

"As a banking establishment, if we thought it advisable to apply different rates, we could easily become the masters of the market. But in our position of Bank of France, organized to serve the interests of public credit in a democratic country, we do not believe ourselves justified to use this option."

The "interview" tells also of the bank's private customers,—about 30 per cent. of the whole. Their average borrowing has been some 732 francs ($141). Nearly half the borrowers take less than 100 francs ($19.30) at a time. Many take the low limit, five francs!

France, though physically small, is the chief investment market of the world. It finances foreign nations. Its own colonies extend to Morocco and China.

If Russia wants a loan running into the hundreds of millions,—or if Jean Jacques wants a loan of seven francs,—either can get it, at the lowest interest rate of the civilized world, from the Bank of France, or, through it, from the banks it serves.

TO READ ABOUT RAILROADS

"I WANT to read what the different railroads earn, and why they earn it. I want something more educational than the daily newspaper rumors of why stocks went up or down,—yet not nearly as technical or lengthy as the big railroad manuals and histories. In short, I am an investor, and a busy one."

That speech is the essence of many a request from a man who wishes to keep an eye

on railroad stocks, perhaps bought with his own savings, or bequeathed to some member of his family, or to some boy or girl whose guardian he is.

To keep one close to the heart of the big railroads, to follow their earning triumphs and expense sorrows from week to week and month to month, one has the "Railroad Studies" of Charles F. Speare, financial editor of the New York *Evening Mail.*

The strategy that enables the Union Pacific lines to operate at two-thirds the cost of even the most gilt-edged Eastern roads,—the peculiar fate of the Southern lines, whereby they have been doomed to suffer under too much prosperity,—what each road gets to haul, how cheaply it hauls it, how deeply it has obligated its future to bond and stockholders,—these matters are attacked by Mr. Speare with more completeness and first-hand expertness than in any other current series known to the writer as available to the investor who is serious but has little leisure.

The "Studies" are also collected from time to time in pamphlet form.

Just as practical for its purpose is Floyd Mundy's "Earning Power of Railroads," a compact annual. It does not go into traffic or balance sheets at all. It sticks to income and outgo, which, after all, are of the most immediate concern to the owner of a railroad stock or even bond.

The 1910 edition, out last month, has the news interest of explaining just how the different railroad accounts are affected by the different percentages charged off in the attempt to meet the rulings of the Interstate Commerce Commission as to "depreciation." Take "equipment": Some railroads charged off 6 per cent. last year, others only 1. Some day this will be straightened out. But until an exact rate is specified by the Commission, the investor needs just such warnings as Mr. Mundy's to know what the railroad really does earn in comparison with its rivals.

Also in a new edition last month was John Moody's big rating book of American railroad securities,—"The Analyses of Railroad Investments." Every bond of every important line is classified and rated and distinguished as to how many miles are mortgaged behind the issue, how much yearly interest is required, and how much money has been available, on an average, during the last ten years.

Each road is analyzed on three sides,—its "physique," meaning its mileage, locomotives and cars, tons of freight, train loads, rate per ton per mile, and so on; its income, and its capital. The dozen items under each of the last two heads are reduced to figures per mile, shown for each of the last ten years, and the ten-year average is compared with the corresponding averages of the chief rivals in the territory.

After many years waiting for just such a full, yet simple, record from just such an authoritative and impartial source, the "Analyses" exist, and leave little excuse for any one connected with railroad stocks and bonds to be ignorant of their intrinsic value.

LABOR AND ITS DUE

ABOUT a hundred of the fattest American corporations resumed and increased dividends during the first quarter of the year to such an extent that the average *per day* for that period was no less than $1,500,000! Labor leaders did not let such facts escape them.

Strikes and rumors of strikes frighten the investor. Yet broad-minded employers are growing more sympathetic, because they see it pays. Others are having sympathy forced upon them.

Great railroads like the B. & O., Pennsylvania, New York Central, Jersey Central, Lackawanna, New Haven, and Erie have been either settling strikes or anticipating them by offers of higher wages.

The Western Union decided on the 8th of last month to devote its $17,000,000 surplus to improving its plant, and also its employees' salaries and working conditions,—instead of raising dividends.

The first large industrial company to raise wages was the American Sugar Refining Company. The Steel Corporation was next.

In Wisconsin and New York they are going to the root of the matter by working out the science of paying damages to workmen for injuries. This costs American employers about $23,000,000 a year, most of which sum is spent by the companies themselves on their lawyers, etc. Even the 40 per cent. or so the workmen get must go, in part, to pay for their own lawyers.

In almost every country except America the injured worker received damages automatically and immediately. In England, for instance, practically every housekeeper, as well as the president of every large corporation, takes out insurance against this "employer's liability." One effective strike antidote will be prepared if the Wisconsin

Legislature can apply the insurance plan to America, so as not to be confiscatory in cases like the big Steel Corporation and the railroads.

The best reading at hand for employers and labor folks interested is the report of the Commission of the New York Legislature, on which a hearing was held the 13th of last month.

The report sets forth foreign experience, and recommends that the American employer be held more accountable for injury in trades involving compressed air, explosives, high electric currents, railroad work, etc. The three pleas of contributory negligence, the misconduct of a fellow-servant and the risks inherent in the calling are to be much modified. They are relics of the old English common law, out of date in this age of special machinery.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PROFIT-SHARING AND LOSS-SHARING

TO meet the demands of labor many employers say they would be glad to grant a share of profits if they were sure the thing would end there and would not represent a step toward some wild co-operative scheme.

This fear is very real. Without it there would be more profit-sharers in America like the Mackay companies, the Du Pont Powder Company, and the United States Steel Corporation, mentioned in these columns last month.

Undue "sharing," however, is a disease that cures itself. A recent report from the British Consul at Lyons, France, narrates the collapse of one of the most notable and long-tried schemes of socialism,—the "Miners' Mine," of the Loire Coal Basin, inaugurated in 1891 with an abundance of capital and well-wishers, with presents, for instance, of $10,000 each from the French Government and the *Petit Journal* newspaper.

Like other businesses, the "Miners' Mine" had a bad year now and then. According to the strict co-operative principle, miners who the year before had received more than their regular wages had to take less.

Storms, recriminations, and quarrels followed. The chairman was changed no less than five times in a single year. This did not lead to efficiency of mining.

The final smash last autumn cast no reproach on profit-sharing proper, a system full of success and industrial hope. But this failure does define the limits of profit-sharing for certain classes of large corporations. Actual control, with its responsibility for losses also, is more than employees really want.

A FREER MARKET FOR STOCKS

ONLY after years of protest on the part of broad-minded bankers, the independent press, and expert bodies like last year's "Hughes" committee did the brief announcement come from the Governors of the New York Stock Exchange, last month, that hereafter no broker will be allowed to offer stock "all or none." His proposition to buy or sell must be "all or part."

These phrases are technical. But their effect is national. It cuts at least one foot from under manipulation, as practiced in the past. It increases the genuineness of quotations made on the Exchange in the future. It represents the longest step the Governors have ever taken toward establishing a really free market for American investment securities since there began to be Governors, ninety-three years ago.

A certain number of Exchange transactions has been, in the past, a farce,—except for the consequences, which have sometimes been tragic.

A stock had just sold at $100 a share. Up rushed a broker, excitedly bidding 25 or 50 cents more per share for 6700 shares,—"all or none." His yearning for that stock could not be satisfied with less than 6700 shares. He would not take 100 here or 200 or 300 there, that certain investors are perfectly willing to sell at 100¼, or maybe less. No, he needed 6700 shares,—"all or none."

In most such adventures another broker appeared with a complementary order of precisely 6700 shares which some one had commissioned him to sell at 100½.

It must be said that the brokers themselves might be innocent agents, usually were.

It was this "all or none" rule which made possible the disgraceful parodies on an investment market committed recently in the names of the Rock Island Company and the Columbus & Hocking Coal & Iron Company.

But now all offerers must accept "all or any part."

Other reforms came the other day. The brokers who have been "specialists" in certain stocks may no longer take advantage of their foreknowledge by trading in these stocks against the interest of their clients. Banking and brokerage clerks may not speculate at all.

THE NEW BOOKS

STEPHEN FRENCH WHITMAN
(Author of "Predestined")

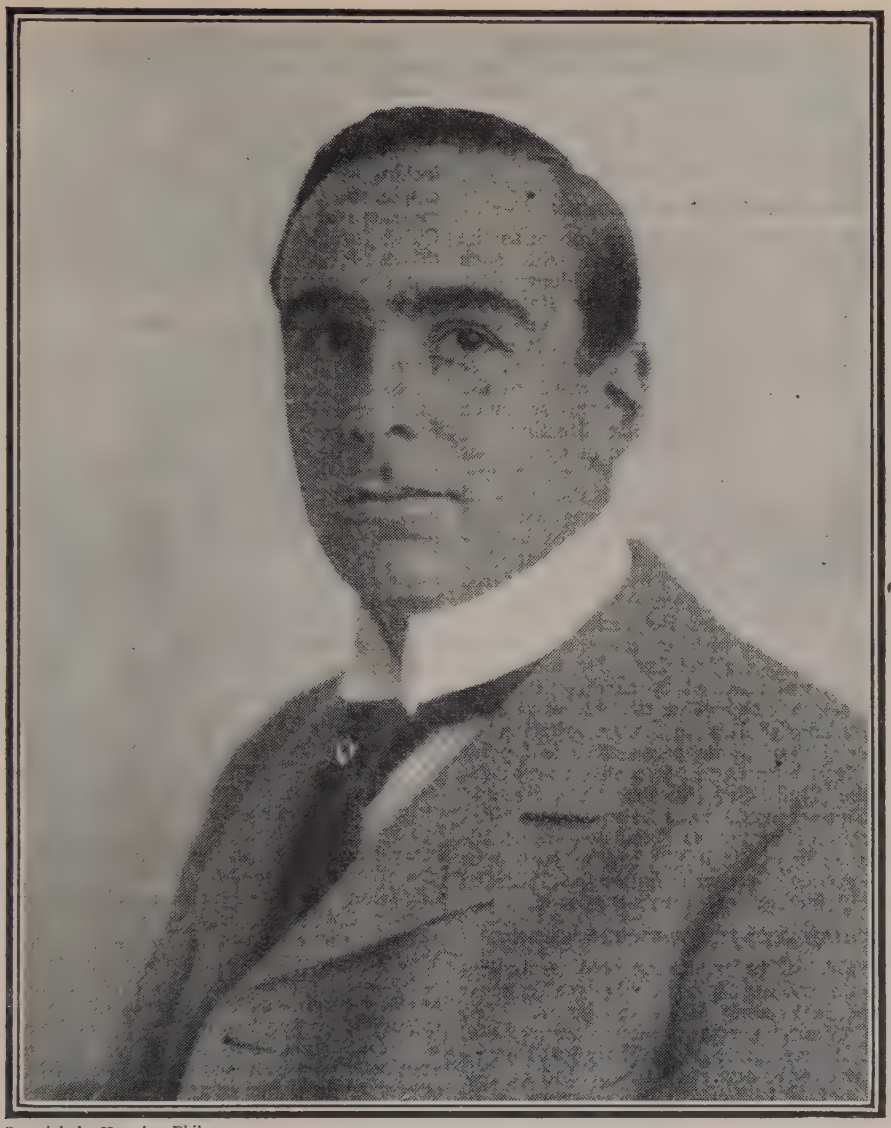
RECENT WORKS OF FICTION

THE publication of a new novel by Mr. Winston Churchill is always an important event in the development of American fiction. Despite the frequent crudities of style in his earlier works, the critics as well as the reading public soon recognized the fact that here was a masterful story-teller who had a dignified sense of his work without taking himself over-seriously; whose fiction was full of incident and "local color," and whose stories revolved around those alert, active, practical characters which are recognized as types of the American people. Nearly two years ago we noticed Mr. Churchill's story, "Mr. Crewe's Career," his latest novel at that time. Since then he has been slowly evolving a more artistic piece of work, which now appears under the title, "A Modern Chronicle."[1] Its theme is the one which has engaged the anxious and frequently hysteric attention of the American fiction writer and the American public during the past decade: the American marriage. Mr. Robert Herrick, Mrs. Edith Wharton, Mrs. Humphry Ward, and Mr. David Graham Phillips have all within the past five years, with varying skill and intensity, presented the lights and shadows of this relation which they find is sadly in need of readjustment. Honora Leffingwell, the heroine of "A Modern Chronicle," is very nearly what the novelist has lately come to regard as the accepted type of the American woman. She is of Southern blood, born in Europe of an accomplished dilettante diplomat. But from her cradle her ambition is always looking toward New York as the object of her feminine longings. Wealth and fashion in the great social maelstrom of the metropolis she imagines will bring her happiness. She marries the first New Yorker who proposes himself. A rather vulgar person, this Howard Spence, who cannot give her anything but a certain wealth and fashion, and not much of these. Soon she thinks she finds her soul-mate in a certain Hugh Chiltern, who is of the rather conventional, heavy-villain type. A Western divorce releases her from her husband and she marries Chiltern, to find herself cut by "society." Chiltern is killed in an accident, Honora goes to Paris, and soon she is found and restored to a sane view of things that are worth while by Peter Erwin, the staunch, able, thoughtful, rather priggish St. Louis man whom she knew in her youth and whom she undoubtedly should have married in the first place. There is very little plot to "A Modern Chronicle," but we think the book shows a firmer, quieter touch, a more effective handling of his literary material, and a more natural, easy humor than are found in any of Mr. Churchill's other novels.

"A man may love many times in his life, but only one woman takes full and complete possession of his inner kingdom, as you have called it. Man is a sultan. One woman is his sultana; the others, absorbing enough during their little hour, are the caprices of his desultory harem. It is odd that his legal wife should so often be but one of these casual minor passions, and the woman he may never possess the one to persuade him of the immortality of love. It is a nice comment upon the makeshifts of civilization." Around this theme Mrs. Gertrude Atherton has written her latest novel, which she entitled somewhat mysteriously "Tower of Ivory."[2] It is an exceedingly ambitious task that the novelist has set herself in this book,—namely, the retelling in a modern novel the epic world force of life as sung by the great poets of history. There are in the book a young upper-class Englishman of distinction of manner but indolent and unstable, two or three women who adore him, and one woman (the central feminine figure), a great singer who on the stage of the great empty opera house of the mad King Louis of Bavaria tries to draw the young Englishman to inspired heights through the exalted music of Wagner. The man of the story possesses few attractions. The one really interesting

[1] A Modern Chronicle. By Winston Churchill. Macmillan. 524 pp., ill. $1.50.

[2] Tower of Ivory. By Gertrude Atherton. Macmillan. 466 pp. $1.50.



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A NEW PORTRAIT OF WINSTON CHURCHILL

(Mr. Churchill's latest story, "A Modern Chronicle," is reviewed on the opposite page)

character is the woman of genius, Margarethe Styr, who in her maturity has fallen in love with an attractive, insignificant young man and who endows him with gifts of heart and intellect which he does not actually possess.

A strong novel of social life, showing a power for psychological analysis and a command of literary technique such as is more than unusual, indeed is very rare, is Stephen French Whitman's "Predestined."[1] This story of life in New York is a study of the struggle of a man of genius but weak character, one Felix Piers, against the temptings of the world, the flesh and the Devil, in the forms of strong drink, woman, and a natural, inborn indolence. There are four women who exert most powerful influences over Felix, each one ordering his life according to her own temperament and ideas. Wealth and no adequate training for life's duties have enervated this man and prevented the formation of any character sufficient to enable him to realize his lofty ideals, and he sinks lower in the social and moral scale with each "love adventure," perhaps lowest of all with the good-hearted but narrow and ignorant woman he finally marries. The development of the theme makes the end as inevitable as that of a Greek tragedy. The great trouble with Felix, to use his own words at his death,—"one's instincts will persist despite ideals."

[1] Predestined. By Stephen French Whitman. Scribners. 464 pp. $1.50.

A collection of short stories, full of quaint pathos and humor, and shrewd knowledge of child character, under the general title "Little Aliens,"[1] comes from the press a few weeks after the death of its author, Mrs. Allan MacNaughton, who was known in fiction by her maiden name of Myra Kelly. The scene is the Jewish East Side of New York.

TWO AMERICAN STATESMEN

Two new volumes in the series known as the American Crisis Biographies deal with such well-known historical characters as Henry Clay and Charles Sumner, two American statesmen who certainly had little in common and concerning whom little can be said at this late day to alter the general consensus of opinion. It would seem hardly necessary to continue the writing of biographies of such men, so much having already been done in that direction, but the volumes before us differ from many of their predecessors in the direction of impartiality. The life of Henry Clay,[2] although the work of his own grandson, is free from prejudice and by no means blind to the limitations of its distinguished subject. On the very day that Clay left the United States Senate Sumner entered it. The biographer of Sumner[3] is George H. Haynes, of the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, who approaches his task in the spirit of the truth-seeking historical scholar. He too seems to have been uninfluenced by predilections and is able to see that any value that his work may have must consist less in its exploitation of new material than in its perspective and point of view. It is hard for us to realize that at the end of the Civil War Abraham Lincoln and Charles Sumner could have been characterized by a historical writer as "the two most influential men in public life." In the years that have intervened Sumner's figure has receded farther and farther into the background.

THE INDIAN AND HIS WESTERN HAUNTS

Two valuable books about the American Indian, both written by men who really know him, have just come from the press. The former Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Mr. Francis E. Leupp, gives a peculiarly lucid exposition of the work and aims of the Indian Department and of Indian affairs in general, with important suggestions for the solution of what is known as the Indian "problem."[4] Mr. Leupp himself modestly describes his book as "simply a message of friendly counsel from a white citizen of the United States, proud of his country and anxious to see the members of our dominant race do their full duty toward a weaker element in the population who were Americans long before we were." A good companion volume to Mr. Leupp's is Major James McLaughlin's narrative of adventure and study of Indian character, which he entitles "My Friend the Indian."[5] As Indian agent and inspector Major McLaughlin has had intimate relations with the red man for a period of nearly forty years. In 1890 it was Major McLaughlin who ended the Ghost Dance trouble by the arrest of Sitting Bull. He is known among the Indians as "the negotiator." Thrilling episodes of Indian history are not lacking in Major McLaughlin's account,—for example, the Indian side of the story of the Custer massacre at Little Big Horn and the story of Chief Joseph's retreat with the Nez Perces. In this book, as in Mr. Leupp's, there are informing chapters about the federal administration of Indian affairs.

The romance of the West, in which Indian fights figure so prominently, is farther drawn upon in "The Last American Frontier,"[6] by Frederic Logan Paxson, of the University of Michigan. Professor Paxson's story is not confined, however, to the record of Indian fights. He has sought to preserve the picturesque atmosphere that belonged to what we once knew as the "Far West" and to indicate those forces which have shaped the history of the country beyond the Mississippi. The great merit of Professor Paxson's work lies in the excellent use that he has made of many historical stores heretofore little used and practically inaccessible to the general public. A great deal of really significant information of one kind and another has thus been preserved from oblivion.

EUROPEAN ARMAMENTS

A remarkable study of the political and economical bearings of war and armaments upon the social and commercial civilization of Europe is Mr. Norman Angell's little volume entitled "Europe's Optical Illusion."[7] Briefly, the thesis of this study is the contention that the increasing interdependence and delicacy of the modern credit system brought about by the marvelous development in rapid communication during the past forty years has "altogether changed the elements of European statecraft by rendering wealth intangible so far as military conquest is concerned." In other words, under modern conditions it is practically an economic impossibility for one nation by military power to seize either the wealth or the trade of another. Any attempt on the part of the conqueror to do either of these things would necessarily involve his own finance, credit and commerce as well as those of the conquered. By this argument Mr. Angell endeavors to prove "the commercial and economic futility of military conquest."

THE MOSQUITO AND DISEASE

Sir Rubert W. Boyce, dean of the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, has written a timely book, for which he has selected the title "Mosquito or Man? or The Conquest of the Tropical World."[8] The book epitomizes what is known as the tropical medical movement, which was initiated in Great Britain while Mr. Joseph Chamberlain was Secretary of State for the Colonies and was energetically supported by

[1] Little Aliens. By Myra Kelly. Scribners. 291 pp., ill. $1.50.
[2] Henry Clay. By Thomas Hart Clay. George W. Jacobs & Co. 450 pp., por. $1.25.
[3] Charles Sumner. By George H. Haynes. George W. Jacobs & Co. 469 pp., por. $1.25.
[4] The Indian and His Problem. By Francis E. Leupp. Scribners. 369 pp. $2.
[5] My Friend the Indian. By James McLaughlin. Houghton Mifflin. 417 pp., ill. $2.50.
[6] The Last American Frontier. By Frederic L. Paxson. Macmillan. 402 pp., ill. $1.50.
[7] Europe's Optical Illusion. By Norman Angell. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co., Ltd. 126 pp. 75 cents.
[8] Mosquito or Man? By Sir Robert Boyce. Dutton. 267 pp., ill. $3.50.

merchants interested in the health progress of tropical countries, until it at last spread all over the civilized world. It is certainly a cause for optimism that, as a result of the vigorous campaign against the mosquito, malaria, yellow fever, and sleeping sickness,—characterized by Sir Rubert Boyce as "the greatest enemies that mankind has ever had to contend with,"—are now fully in hand. While England has had a great part in this practical conquest of tropical disease, it should not be forgotten that the American army surgeons Reed, Carroll, Agramonte, and Lazear, who were sent to Cuba to study yellow fever, really demonstrated the propagation of yellow fever by the mosquito and thus laid the foundations of practically all that has been done to exterminate that scourge from the world.

AMERICAN ECONOMIC HISTORY

Most Americans who have grown up since the Civil War have a surprise in store for them in the pages of Dr. Emerson D. Fite's book on "Social and Industrial Conditions in the North During the Civil War."[1] Those of us who have depended on the histories of the period have been led to believe that war and politics were the only topics that interested the people during the years 1861-65. Dr. Fite, on the other hand, has attempted to find out what the people at home were doing to gain their livelihoods while the battles were being fought south of Mason and Dixon's Line. He has learned that socially and industrially the North was more active and prosperous than ever before. "The output of raw materials from the farms, the mines, and the forests was unusual, and transportation and manufacturing activity was extraordinary; practically all branches of commercial life flourished." He has found that even lavish expenditure upon luxuries and amusements was not lacking. A detailed study of these extraordinary conditions forms a wholly new contribution to American social and industrial history.

The third and fourth volumes of the "Documentary History of American Industrial Society,"[2] a work to which we have called attention in former numbers of this REVIEW, are entirely devoted to labor conspiracy cases arising during the period 1806-1842, including reprints of the original statements, indictments, reports, arguments, testimony, and decisions of all the labor conspiracy cases, ending with the notable decision of Justice Shaw of Massachusetts in 1842. Although the history of these cases has remained practically a sealed book to American publicists and students, they involve the important question known to-day as the open or closed shop, and the documents here reprinted bring out not only the legal questions involved but also the detailed industrial and commercial conditions of the time. In these documents it appears that the word "scab" in its present-day sense was in frequent us in the early years of the nineteenth century. The editorial work on these volumes was done by Prof. John R. Commons and Prof. Eugene A. Gilmore, of the University of Wisconsin.

The second volume of Gustavus Myers' "History of the Great American Fortunes"[3] tells the story of the building of American railroad systems and the exploitation of the public lands. The beginnings and growth of the Vanderbilt and the Gould fortunes are related in detail. This story is to be continued in a third volume to appear shortly.

REFERENCE BOOKS

A series of new practical guides to all the "tourist countries" of the world is being brought out by Small, Maynard & Co. The guides issued up to the present include a two-volume one on Great Britain and Ireland, and the one which treats of Mexico, Central America, South America, and the West Indies. The guide to Great Britain[4] is by M. D. Frazar. The one to Latin America[5] is by Dr. Albert Hale, who has already to his credit a number of works on Central and South American topics. We publish an article from his pen elsewhere this month. These guides are packed full of information useful to the traveler, arranged in a more accessible and compact form than is the case with most guides.

Another commendable practical traveler's companion for European tour is the "Satchel Guide to Europe,"[6] compiled with maps by Dr. W. J. Rolfe.

An edition de luxe of the Funk & Wagnalls Students' Standard Dictionary,[7] recently issued, is a very useful and attractive work of reference. This work, which has been abridged from the regular Standard Dictionary, gives the orthography, pronunciation, meaning, and etymology of more than 60,000 words and phrases, together with synonyms and antonyms.

In preparing his new "Manual of Gardening,"[8] Prof. L. H. Bailey, he tells us, combined and revised the main parts of his other two books, "Garden-Making" and "The Practical Garden-Book," adding new material, the results of the experience of ten years. Professor Bailey has seen and studied amateur and commercial gardening in all parts of the United States. He knows the "why" and the "how," and this volume, which is helpfully illustrated, is, as his subtitle makes it, "a practical guide to the making of home grounds and the growing of flowers, fruits, and vegetables for home use."

In his little monograph entitled "Comets: Their Origin, Nature, and History,"[9] Mr. Henry W. Elson answers all the questions that will be asked by the average man and woman during the next few weeks about the brilliant visitor to our skies. Mr. Elson begins at the beginning and considers the solar system and the

[1] Social and Industrial Conditions During the Civil War. By Emerson D. Fite. Macmillan. 318 pp. $2.

[2] Documentary History of American Industrial Society, Vols. III. and IV. Edited by John R. Commons and Eugene A. Gilmore. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company. 726 pp. $10.

[3] History of the Great American Fortunes, Vol. II. By Gustavus Myers. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 368 pp., ill. $1.50.

[4] Practical Guide to Great Britain and Ireland. By M. D. Frazar. Small, Maynard & Co. 2 vols., 800 pp. $3.

[5] Practical Guide to Latin America. By Albert Hale. Small, Maynard & Co. 250 pp. $1.

[6] A Satchel Guide to Europe. By W. J. Rolfe. Houghton Mifflin. 308 pp., maps. $1.50.

[7] The Students' Standard Dictionary (edition de luxe). Funk & Wagnalls. 917 pp., ill. $5.

[8] Manual of Gardening. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan. 539 pp., ill. $2.

[9] Comets. By Henry W. Elson. New York: Sturgis & Walton Company. 54 pp., ill. 50 cents.

stars, following with a discussion of the nature and behavior of comets. He then considers superstitions about these strange astronomical bodies, describes some of the more remarkable comets of history, tells about meteors and shooting stars, and devotes his last chapter to the history of Halley's comet and what we may expect to learn about it this year.

An enterprising member of the Baltimore bar, Mr. Arthur W. Machen, Jr., has compiled a treatise on the federal corporation tax law of 1909.[1] The fact that corporations are under permanent obligation to make returns to the federal Government under this statute renders it highly important that they should be possessed of accurate knowledge regarding their rights and liabilities. In the absence of court decisions such knowledge is not in all cases easy to acquire, and Mr. Machen has done well to publish in this compact form an intelligent commentary on the chief points in the law which require elucidation. Appendices to the volume contain the Treasury regulations, with annotations and explanations, and forms of returns.

A book on government for young Americans, which deals with the control of public utilities, public service commissions, conservation of natural resources, and recent aspects of the tariff, is certainly a novelty in the text-book literature of the subject. Mr. Crittenden Marriott, the author of "Uncle Sam's Business," deals intelligently and entertainingly with these topics in his little handbook entitled "How Americans Are Governed in Nation, State, and City."[2] As in his former volume, Mr. Marriott attempts to picture government in its actual workings instead of devoting much space to historical origins and evolution. It is natural and proper that an increasing amount of attention be given to municipal problems, and some of the questions which have arisen in connection with our modern colonial policy demand notice. All in all the book marks a distinct advance on the ordinary type of "civil government" text-book.

The seventh volume of the Catholic Encyclopedia[3] contains numerous articles of special interest in both religious and secular fields of knowledge. One of the most important of the theological disquisitions in this volume is the study of "infallibility" by Prof. Patrick J. Toner, of St. Patrick's College, Maynooth, Ireland. A valuable contribution to American ethnology is the article on American Indians, by James Mooney, of the Ethnological Bureau at Washington. The social and religious conditions of modern India are ably and fairly treated by the Rev. Ernest R. Hull, editor of the *Examiner* at Bombay. These are only a few of the articles that make up a valuable and interesting volume of the encyclopedia.

Of special interest to Roman Catholic readers is a little book entitled "The Spirit of St. Alphonsus Liguori,"[4] the founder of the Redemptorist order, which has been translated from the German of the Rev. Joseph A. Krebs by the Rev. Cornelius Warren. The work is based upon the fourth volume of the life of St. Alphonsus by the late Cardinal Villecourt. In a sense it is a supplement to the three large volumes which originally constituted that work.

[1] The Federal Corporation Tax Law. By Arthur W. Machen, Jr. Little, Brown & Co. 269 pp. $1.50.

[2] How Americans Are Governed. By Crittenden Marriott. Harpers. 373 pp. $1.25.

[3] The Catholic Encyclopedia. Vol VII. Edited by Charles G. Hebermann. New York: Robert Appleton Company. 800 pp., ill. $6.

[4] The Spirit of St. Alphonsus Liguori. Boston: Mission Church Press. 283 pp.

TWO MUNICIPAL HANDBOOKS.

One of the most useful publications of the Russell Sage Foundation is a handbook of housing reform for practical use in American cities, by Lawrence Veiller.[5] Much effective use might be made of this book in the campaign for housing reform that has been inaugurated by the National Housing Association in a score of States. The American people seem to be at last coming to a realizing sense of the fact that there is a housing problem outside of the cities of New York and Chicago. A recent investigation in Indiana, for instance, showed that in small villages there were cases of bad housing which threatened the health of the whole community. If anyone can tell how to prevent these housing evils it is Mr. Veiller, who has made a lifelong study of the subject and has served on tenement-house commissions repeatedly, besides acting as First Deputy Tenement Commissioner in New York immediately after the Tenement Department came into existence.

The first volume of a much-needed work on municipal franchises, by Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, of the New York Public Service Commission, has just appeared.[6] In this work Dr. Wilcox sets forth the terms and conditions upon which private corporations enjoy special franchises in the streets of American cities. The present volume is entirely devoted to pipe and wire franchises. This work, it is believed, represents the first attempt to analyze and describe municipal franchises as they exist in actual operation in American cities. For the second volume are reserved the discussion of the various clauses of transportation and terminal franchises and the general observations and clauses in regard to the taxation and control of public utilities. Dr. Wilcox is in charge of the Bureau of Franchises of the New York Public Service Commission (First District).

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

The speeches delivered by President Taft during the campaign which resulted in his election, and in the few months intervening between his election and inauguration, have been collected and brought out in a volume entitled "Political Issues and Outlooks."[7] The President's views on a great variety of topics may be gleaned from a perusal of these addresses.

Prof. Henry T. Stephenson's study of "The Elizabethan People"[8] is informing and erudite without being dull. The reader is brought face to face with Shakespeare's contemporaries and is made to feel that such people really lived and moved and had their being in old London.

[5] Housing Reform. By Lawrence Veiller. New York: Charities Publication Committee. 213 pp. $1.25.

[6] Municipal Franchises, Vol. I. By Delos F. Wilcox. New York: Engineering News Book Company. 710 pp. $5.

[7] Political Issues and Outlooks. By William Howard Taft. Doubleday, Page & Co. 299 pp., por. $1.25.

[8] The Elizabethan People. By Henry T. Stephenson. Holt. 412 pp., ill. $2.

The American Review of Reviews

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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KING GEORGE V. AND QUEEN MARY OF ENGLAND

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

The Character of King Edward

At the moment when King Edward died, so widely expressed in England was the sense of loss with a dread of political consequences, that no one could doubt its sincerity. At first the American reader was inclined to be a little skeptical and to attribute this gloomy, almost despairing tone of English journalism and statesmanship to the British habit of rejoicing greatly or of mourning deeply over every happening, good or ill, that affects the royal family. But it was all genuine, not perfunctory. Americans generally had regarded King Edward as the embodiment of tact, kindly temper, liberality of mind, and the sense of fair play that is developed by a life of devotion to English sportsmanship. The death of the King has given us all in this country an opportunity to discover how greatly Edward had grown in the respect, as well as in the affections, of the English people. That widespread disapprobation of him as a man,—which it was always known that even his royal mother shared in entertaining,—and which as late as twenty years ago led many Englishmen to say that Edward could never be permitted to ascend the throne, had been lived down.

THE LATE KING EDWARD

The Modern Way of Being a King

From a father of admirable traits of mind and heart, and from a mother of noble character and long-sustained wisdom in affairs of state, Edward had inherited qualities which asserted themselves when his opportunity came to put them in exercise. In a period of crumbling traditions; of scanty reverence for mere survivals of ancient custom; of scientific tests and democratic notions in political and social organization,—it is to be said of King Edward that he left the institution of monarchy stronger than he found it. In the first decade of the twentieth century he reconciled a republican age to the indefinite continuance of that most illogical of all things in modern government,—an hereditary sovereign. He was a king who understood how much more powerful he could be through the tactful use of influence, and the gentle pressure of social leadership, than through the possession of absolute governing authority. And so, in this period when public opinion is the dominant force, he found more than enough work to do, and readily reconciled himself to the

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A TYPICAL PICTURE OF THE LATE KING

mutations of party government under the parliamentary system. Thus Edward, using modern forces, was more potent in fact than the Russian Czar, with his theoretical autocracy. King Edward knew how to strengthen England's foreign relationships without conflicting at any point with the work of the Prime Minister or the head of the foreign office. His influence could aid, along the line of an orderly and safe progress in domestic affairs, without antagonizing either Liberals or Conservatives.

A "Crisis" Already Averted

It is true that England has been passing through a strenuous period of so-called constitutional "crisis," and that King Edward was relied upon to help keep the country going along steadily while adjustments were being made at Westminster. But the crisis, when beheld from a distance and with some perspective, has not been nearly so perilous as those in the midst of the controversy have supposed. For a great many years it has been obvious that the House of Lords would have to be reorganized or else abolished. It was also obvious enough that, when the time came to deal with the question, the Lords and the influences represented by them would make a plucky fight for every vested right and privilege that had come to them from earlier days. They could have postponed the period of their reformation if they had been governed by the same tact and good sense that keeps the monarchy alive and useful. The budget, or finance bill, which had passed the House of Commons by an overwhelming majority, and which the House of Lords persistently refused to accept, was a measure making some changes in taxation and providing funds to maintain a system of old-age pensions for workingmen. There were innovations in this budget, but they were neither disastrous nor unstatesmanlike. The people of the United Kingdom, by an overwhelming majority, were behind the members of Parliament who carried the budget repeatedly through the House of Commons. For generations it had been the unwritten consti-

ALBERT EDWARD, AS FAMILIARLY SEEN, JUST BEFORE HE ASCENDED THE THRONE

tutional law of England that the House of Lords must agree to measures framed by the House of Commons for raising revenue and for expending it. The House of Lords is, naturally, made up for the most part of members representing the extreme reactionary wing of the Conservative party. When the Conservatives are in power in the House of Commons, they also control the House of Lords and their bills are promptly ratified. But when the Liberals, by mandate of the nation, as at the present time, have a majority in the House of Commons and are in control of the executive government, the Tory House of Lords always blocks and obstructs important measures of legislation, without regard to the popular demand for their passage.

The Lords and the Budget

If the British monarch should ally himself in an extreme and pugnacious spirit with one party or with the other, the great British democracy would soon make an end of the whole royalty business. People who are wise as individuals are often fools when acting as a group. The British House of Lords contains a large number of statesmen of ability and experience, and England and the British Empire should not be without their services. But the great majority of men whose rank as peers gives them the right to a seat and a vote in the House of Lords under the present system are not statesmen, have never entered the House at Westminster half a dozen times in their lives, and ought to be dispossessed of their present prerogatives. Precisely how to reconstruct the membership of the upper chamber on the one hand, and to define its powers on the other hand, must involve protracted discussion and many compromises. But it does not involve any such thing as a crisis. Already the House of Lords has, by a decisive majority, accepted the budget which it had so persistently rejected previous to the last general election. Thus the Lords will never again obstruct a budget. But further than that, the House of Lords has

GEORGE V. AS HE APPEARED AT THE RECENT QUEBEC CELEBRATION

KING GEORGE AND QUEEN MARY

THE NEW KING AND HIS MOTHER, THE DOWAGER-QUEEN ALEXANDRA

also voted, almost unanimously, that the time has come for a change in its own structure; and it has recognized the principle that the holding of a peerage ought not to carry with it a seat and a vote in one of the law-making chambers. It is not, indeed, to be expected that the House of Lords will meekly consent to be annihilated; nor will it readily accept a reform as sweeping as the radical wing of the Liberal party would demand. But the things already conceded by the House of Lords constitute a vast measure of reform; and between what the radicals will insist upon and what the Lords have conceded, there must lie some reasonable middle ground that can be determined with the good-will of the new King and the approval of the nation. The discussion that the details of this adjustment must yet evoke will doubtless be absorbing and at times rather violent. But in so far as the situation has merited the use of the word "crisis," it has already been met, and there remains only that normal process of adjustment that is always going forward in a country that governs itself by discussion and by the pendulum swings of party change.

King George on Smooth Seas

Thus, in point of fact, King George does not succeed King Edward in a time of danger, for the simple reason that the concessions already made by the House of Lords, under Edward's influence, have averted every possi-

PRINCE EDWARD ALBERT, ELDEST SON OF KING GEORGE, AND NOW PRINCE OF WALES

Photograph from Paul Thompson, N. Y.

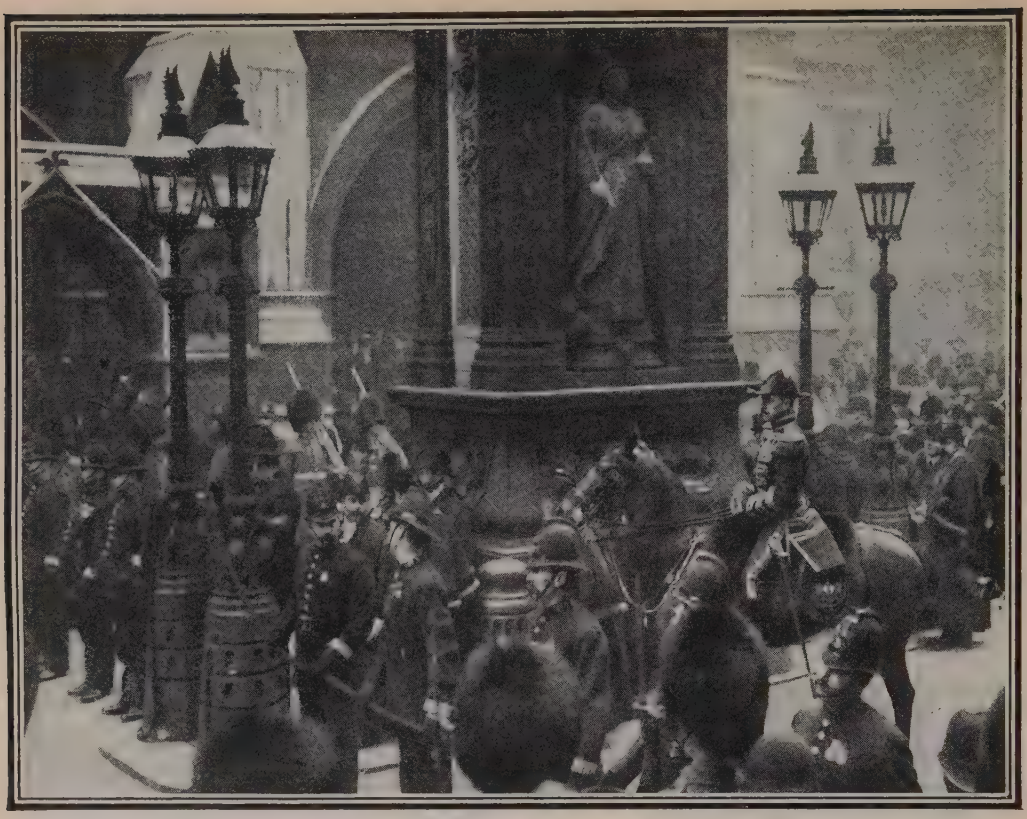
SONS OF THE KING SALUTING, AFTER PROCLAMATION OF NEW REIGN

bility of serious trouble. Doubtless the House of Lords will remain in some form, having for its nucleus those really able and patriotic statesmen whose absence from an upper chamber would be a calamity. King George succeeds King Edward with universal good-will, and with even less misgiving than when King Edward succeeded Queen Victoria. All the machinery of British government goes on as smoothly as did our own governmental machinery when Vice-President Roosevelt succeeded President McKinley, or when President Taft succeeded President Roosevelt. King George is a man of mature years, stable character, and conscientious devotion to the responsibilities that lie before him. It is not possible to believe that he will exert unwise influences upon the course of domestic affairs in British government and life, and it is not less hard to believe that he will undo any of the tactful and useful work performed by his father before him in making friends for England among the powers of Europe and promoting the cause of international peace. King George knows the colonies especially well and grew up in the British navy. His devotion to the colonial empire and to England's sea power must, of course, have some bearing upon the directions in which his influence will be exerted. Mr. Stead has written for us an unusually interesting analysis of the character of the new King, and an admirable tribute to the usefulness of the late King Edward. When Mr. Stead, with his radical proclivities, can write as he does (see page 682) upon these two successive heads of the English reigning family, one may fairly infer that there is no longer any republicanism in England that seriously contemplates an abolition of the monarchy.

THE KING IN UNIFORM

An Imperial Statesman

Furthermore, it is worth while to note the fact that the succession to the throne of such a man as Prince George does not tend to bring



PROCLAIMING THE NEW KING IN FRONT OF THE LAW COURTS, IN THE STRAND

above the horizon of practical statesmanship the question of independence for the great self-governing colonies, namely, Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand. These countries know King George, are aware of his interest in them, and accept him in a spirit of loyalty that is more than formal. They will believe, unless they have strong evidence to the contrary, that their interests are quite as dear to him as those of the United Kingdom. It would seem natural that King George might be inclined toward the views of those who would imperialize the House of Lords in the process of reforming it,— that is to say, he might favor bringing into it some representation, however limited, from the great English-speaking colonies. Thus from the standpoint of British affairs in the large sense it might seem reasonable to hold the view that King Edward is succeeded, not for the worse, but for the better,—inasmuch as King George is incomparably better acquainted than his father was with the British Empire and the world at large, while in personal habits and in actual acquaintance he is much closer to the mass of the serious-minded British people than was the pleasure-loving Edward at any time in his career.

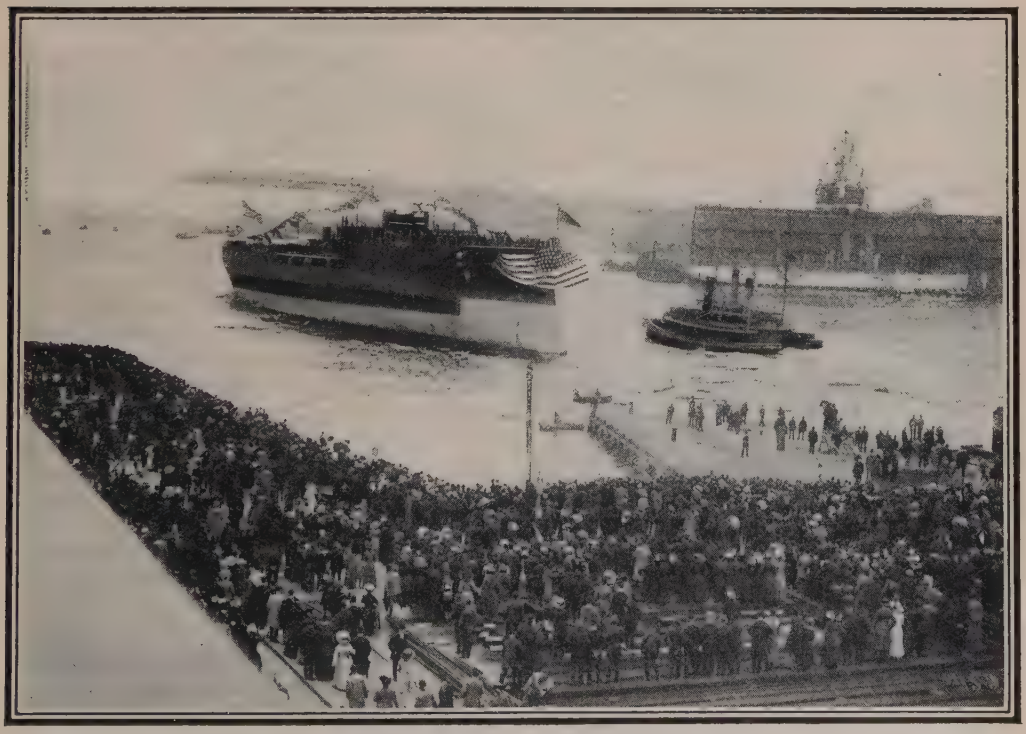
England and Germany

The change on the throne comes at a time when the British Empire is on terms of peace and amity with the whole world. It is true that England has suffered recently from an acute hysterical mania due to the curious delusion that Germany is making elaborate preparations for an immediate invasion of the island kingdom. The English newspapers have been filled with wild outbursts against Germany; and every German waiter in a London restaurant has been eyed with suspicion as a spy or a member of an advance German military corps a quarter of a million strong, with arms and ammunition concealed and ready to seize London at a moment's notice. Meanwhile, there has been no feeling in Germany of a corresponding sort, and no more thought of invading England than of bombarding New York. It is usually a condition of exceptional freedom from foreign complications that permits a comfortable, somewhat overfed

nation, like the English, to indulge in the luxury of a war-scare. The way to understand it is to study the alarm expressed in certain quarters in the United States over the supposed intention of Japan to capture the Philippines and Hawaii and bombard San Francisco. The last thing in the world Japan has in mind is to attack the United States; and the last thing on the program of possible German operations is an attack upon either England or America. Germany is becoming one of the greatest of maritime commercial powers, and means to have a navy suited to her position as an international merchant. The sooner England gives up the idea that she must build at least two monstrous battleships every time Germany or the United States builds one, the easier it will be to arrive at some agreement among the nations for limiting military and naval expenditure. King George is a naval authority; and his cousin, the Emperor William, who has made him a visit of condolence and who attended the funeral of Edward on May 20, is also a master of naval problems. The greatest service these two monarchs could render the world just now would be to find a way to end the craze for building battleships of the type of the *Florida,* launched by our Government at the Brooklyn Navy Yard last month. The question becomes acute.

Britain and America

The relations between Great Britain and the United States have never been more agreeable than at this moment when a new sovereign begins his reign. No communication between our State Department and the British foreign office for a number of years past has used the sharp tone of earlier days, or has been even controversial in its nature. The Alaska boundary question was a delicate and dangerous one, but we settled it in a decent way and it is now forgotten. Our right to control our own canal across the Panama Isthmus, and to protect it with any defensive works we deem suitable, has England's entire approval. The last outstanding question of any importance has to do with the rights of our fishermen of the North Atlantic coast, and that is just on the point of settlement by arbitration at The Hague. Senator Elihu Root, of New York, and the other lawyers of the group who are to present the case of the United States before the arbitrators sailed on May 21. They will find arrayed against



LAUNCHING THE "FLORIDA," BROOKLYN NAVY YARD,—ILLUSTRATING THE RAPID EXPANSION OF NAVAL STRENGTH AND EXPENDITURE

Photograph taken May 21.—Copyright by the American Press Association, N. Y.

From Left to Right: Robert Lansing, Watertown, N. Y.; Dr. James Brown Scott, Solicitor of the State Department; Hon. Charles B. Warren, Detroit, Mich.; Hon. Samuel J. Elder, Boston, Mass.; Hon. George Turner, Spokane, Wash.; Mr. Chandler P. Anderson, New York, and Senator Elihu Root.

AMERICAN COUNSEL EMBARKING FOR THE HAGUE TO ARGUE THE FISHERIES CASE

them a dazzling galaxy of English, Canadian, and Newfoundland jurists. The five arbitrators, selected from the permanent Hague Court, are all eminent international law authorities and comprise an Austrian, a South American, a Dutchman, an Englishman, and an American. The member from this country is Judge George Gray and the Englishman is Sir Charles FitzPatrick. The subject is a complex one, and it is not easy to carry the points of the controversy in one's memory. A full and frank statement of it all is made for our readers this month by an able Newfoundland writer, Mr. P. T. McGrath (see page 718). There ought to be a broad and radical change in the commercial relations of the United States and Canada, and it is to be hoped that the near future may see a much greater freedom of trade across the boundary line than has existed in recent times. But it is worth noting, meanwhile, that relationships between Canada and the United States under the McKinley, Roosevelt, and Taft administrations have shown a tendency to grow more intimate and neighborly than ever before. Adverse tariffs cannot prevent growth of trade with Canada.

Mr. Roosevelt as Special Ambassador

The plans that had been made for entertaining Mr. Roosevelt were modified by reason of the death of King Edward. The etiquette of court mourning changed the German program, but in a quiet and unofficial way the American guest probably had better opportunity to confer with the Emperor and with German public men than if the time of his stay in Berlin had been all taken up with the more formal entertainments that had been proposed. Mr. Roosevelt's address at the University of Berlin was given as previously scheduled, but his last formal address abroad, which was to have been given at the University of Oxford on May 18, was postponed until June 7. While at Berlin Mr. Roosevelt received a message from President Taft asking him to represent the United States as special ambassador at the funeral of the English King. Thus fate gave an official character to Mr. Roosevelt's advent upon English soil, and brought him into relation with the remarkable group of royal and titled personages who had come to dignify the obsequies of one king and to extend the hand of brotherly greeting to another.

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MR ROOSEVELT WITH AMBASSADORS BACON AND JUSSERAND AND OTHER DISTINGUISHED MEN AT THE TOMB OF NAPOLEON

Mr. Roosevelt in London was the guest of Mr. Reid, whom he had himself selected as our ambassador. Sometimes the unofficial touring of a distinguished man makes strongly for the growth of international good-will. The frequent visits of the late King Edward to continental Europe were of this sort. The travels of Prince George, now King, in the British colonial empire were similarly useful. Secretary Root's South American tour and certain Asiatic and European travels of Mr. Taft when governor of the Philippines are recalled as having a peculiarly timely and valuable influence. Mr. Roosevelt's European tour, which in its original planning on his part was as simple and as free from ostentation as could be imagined, has given Europe a chance to show its liking and its enthusiasm for what it believes to be typical of the best manhood and finest aspirations of America. Plain people and great rulers alike have tried to show, in honoring Mr. Roosevelt, that they admire and respect the honesty, intelligence, efficiency, and courage that are exemplified in such a product of American education and

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CROSSING THE WATER TO SWEDEN AND NORWAY

environment as our only ex-President. Some of the European papers have good-naturedly

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QUEEN MAUD AND MRS ROOSEVELT LEAVING THE STATION FOR THE PALACE AFTER ARRIVAL AT CHRISTIANIA

chaffed the Colonel upon his propensity for preaching the obvious virtues; but, just as good-naturedly, Colonel Roosevelt goes straight ahead in his wholesome, didactic fashion. Elsewhere in this number we present synopses of some of his European addresses. We have held over our selections from the Oxford address because of its postponement. We also reproduce a number of cartoons that have appeared in the comic press of Europe.

Mr. Roosevelt Concluding His Tour of Europe

Although not characterized by the enthusiastic abandon with which the Italians and the Hungarians received the American ex-President, the welcome accorded to Mr. Roosevelt in Paris, when he reached the French capital on April 21, combined heartiness with the simplicity that marks French taste. The usual round of official visits, including meetings with President Fallières, were quickly followed by the address at the Sorbonne on the subject of "Citizenship in the Republic," extracts from which we reproduce on another page. The address was received by the press of Paris with comment showing plainly that the impression made by the speaker was one of sincerity and force. On April 28 Colonel Roosevelt left Paris for Brussels. At the Belgian capital he was received with quiet, respectful honors by a delegation of the Belgian Parliament and was entertained by King Albert at the Palace at Laeken. Friendly informality was the keynote of the visit of the Roosevelt party to Amsterdam and The Hague. There was something, as Mr. Roosevelt said, in his kind and warm reception at the Dutch court that appealed to him strongly, and he "never ceased to rejoice that he was born of Dutch ancestry." The informal luncheon with Queen Wilhelmina and Prince Henry on April 29 was almost immediately followed, so little time did the schedule of his travels leave him for leisure, by the departure of Colonel Roosevelt for Copenhagen. There were royal receptions and popular demonstrations at this city and later at Stockholm. Christiania, the quaint Norwegian capital, awaited the American ex-President with peculiar interest, since it was there that, on May 5, he was to deliver his address on international peace before the Nobel Prize Committee, which is

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KING HAAKON AND COLONEL ROOSEVELT IN ROYAL CARRIAGE LEAVING THE STATION AT CHRISTIANIA

composed of members of the Storthing, the Norwegian Parliament. The ex-President, it will be remembered, received the Nobel prize for the promotion of international peace in 1906 on account of his efforts for the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War. In accordance with the requirements, all persons who receive prizes must deliver in Stockholm or Christiania an address on some subject connected with the achievement for which the prize had been bestowed. Mr. Roosevelt's address, which we summarize and quote from on another page this month, was delivered in the National Theater to an audience of 2000, including King Haakon and Queen Maud. The death of King Edward, of England, on the day following the Christiania address, necessitated, as we have already remarked, a change in the plans for the entertainment of the ex-President in Berlin and London. In accordance with Mr. Roosevelt's own request, the German Emperor canceled the arrangements for all official functions in his honor and received him privately. A number of receptions and other entertainments were, however, tendered the ex-President, and the Kaiser paid Mr. Roosevelt an unusual compliment in permitting him to review the maneuvers of 12,000 picked German troops. The Emperor, in the presence of his entire staff, drew attention to the fact that this was the first time that a private citizen had ever reviewed the German army. Mr. Roosevelt's address at the University on May 12 on the "World Movement" is summarized and reviewed on another page. On account of continuous speech-making Mr. Roosevelt's voice failed him several times during the later days of his stay in Scandinavia and Germany, but rest in London, and the attendance of the court physicians, which the new King George hospitably insisted upon, soon restored Mr. Roosevelt to his accustomed physical health. His plans for returning to America were not changed, and the reception date at New York, June 18, was confirmed.

Gov. Hughes for the Supreme Bench

As our pages closed for the press a month ago there came the announcement from Washington that Governor Hughes, of New York, had accepted President Taft's invitation to fill the vacancy on the Supreme Bench caused by the

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ROOSEVELT STILL ON DECK

(Col. Roosevelt saluting while passing through the lines of Norwegian battleships, the bands playing the "Star-Spangled Banner" on board *Queen Maud*)

death of Justice Brewer. Governor Hughes was known as an accomplished legal scholar before his name became famous through his insurance investigation. He had been for several years a professor of law at Cornell University. He has a rare power of analysis and exposition. He has not had the training or the experience of a judge, but it is the verdict of bench, bar, and press that he is well fitted for the Supreme Court, and that the appointment is one of high distinction. It came at a moment when Albany was in turmoil through exposures of legislative corruption, and when an extensive and notable program of reforms was pending in the Legislature with the Governor as sponsor for them. He was the author of the Primary-Election bill, the leader of the movement for a probing of past legislative scandals, and the main reliance of those who are working for half a dozen other measures deemed essential to the progress and well-being of the Empire State. Mr. Hughes expected to return to the private practice of law in January, at the end of his term as Governor. For a plain American lawyer to refuse the urgent demand of the chief magistrate of the nation that he shall put on judicial ermine and mount the Supreme Bench would not be in keeping with the traditions of his profession. Momentous questions affecting the political and economic future of the United States must be decided by the Supreme Court within the coming year. Governor Hughes could not have shirked as a duty what he might have declined as a mere honor. He accepted upon the statement of President Taft that it would not be necessary for him to resign the Governorship and assume his new duties until early in October. The Standard Oil and Tobacco Trust cases are to be argued again some time in the month of November.

Political Effects at Home

But although Mr. Hughes could not well have declined, his appointment was not without certain local consequences that many people deplored. His strength as a leader had been so reinforced by disclosures that had embarrassed the Republican machine bosses that the logic of the situation was in harmony with his views. His program was admittedly going to be adopted by the Legislature. His influence was to have been felt in the shaping of the State ticket and the conduct of the fall campaign. The politicians looked upon him as a man of destiny, almost certain at some future time to be President, and likely enough to take the nomination away from Taft just two years hence. New York Republicans began to remember that they had stuck to his name, and presented him at the Chicago convention, two years ago. He was regarded as the one man in the country, apart from the ex-President, whose personal prestige might bring him to the front in 1912, to lead a demoralized party on to victory in the probable event of Republican defeats in the elections of this year. One set of politicians said that Governor Hughes had been providentially removed from his trouble-making career as a reformer in the State of New York. Another set complimented Mr. Taft on his shrewdness in forever shelving a possible rival for the Presidency. American political history was ransacked for parallel cases, and for the moment the cause of reform in New York languished.

A Suggested Parallel

The thing in the history of New York most readily suggested was the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt for the Vice-Presidency ten years ago. He also was in the thick of a reform movement, and he expected a second term as Governor, with a prospect of being nominated for the Presidency in 1904. The work of Senator Platt, Senator Quay, and other politicians of New York and Pennsylvania in trying to force the convention to put Roosevelt on the ticket with McKinley was for the frankly avowed purpose of getting him out of New York politics. Corporation interests demanded his "shelving." The Vice-Presidency was an office which had previously been regarded as terminating an incumbent's active career. An unforeseen tragedy made Mr. Roosevelt President, and the machinations of his enemies were turned against them. In the current number

ROOSEVELT'S WORD TO EUROPE

ROOSEVELT: "In the name of America I call upon you to disarm!"
EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS (in chorus): "Why don't you begin yourself?"
From *Pasquino* (Turin)

of *McClure's* there is an article purporting to be posthumous autobiography by the late Mr. Platt. It tells with much frankness,—though with an incompleteness that might tempt those who know all the facts to round the story out,—how Mr. Platt in his own opinion made and unmade Roosevelt as Governor, and how he made him Vice-President. Mr. Platt could never understand that great trend of public opinion which Mr. Roosevelt always knew how to reckon with, and which, also, some of those whom Mr. Platt was wont to designate as Roosevelt's "self-constituted friends," were in a position to understand and to measure with some accuracy.

Roosevelt, Platt, Etc.

Mr. Roosevelt was never a puppet in Mr. Platt's hands. Platt had very reluctantly accepted him for Governor, because the State was about to go Democratic, the public was demanding Roosevelt, and the independents had already obtained from him what they regarded as a qualified consent to run at the head of their separate ticket. While it is true that the traction companies,—because Governor Roosevelt had signed the Ford franchise-tax bill,—had ordered the political bosses to take Roosevelt out of State politics, he could nevertheless have won his renomination and re-election as Governor, in spite of Mr. Platt. Nothing would have been so easy as an exposure of the origin of the conspiracy against Roosevelt at that time, and a mere setting forth of undisputed facts would have resulted in Mr. Roosevelt's renomination and re-election as Governor. Thus the attempt on Mr. Platt's part to make it appear that Roosevelt was soft clay in the hands of a great boss is not only mistaken but ridiculous. Furthermore, although Platt and Quay started the Roosevelt boom at the Philadelphia convention, their motives were perfectly understood and were not in the least the factor that turned the situation in the end.

The Real Power in Politics

Mr. Roosevelt, four months in advance, had given to the press a formal statement to the effect that under no circumstances would he accept a nomination for the Vice-Presidency. In the great campaign of 1896 many of the Western States had been carried by the Populists. The Western Republicans, wishing to make sure of their local situations, demanded Roosevelt for the strengthening of the ticket in 1900. They declared that the party needed him and must have him on the ticket and in the campaign; and they freely pledged themselves that under any circumstances they would make him President in 1904. It was not Mr. Platt's intrigues and his alleged award of the Governorship to Odell that led Roosevelt to sacrifice his own wishes at Philadelphia. It was rather his feeling that he must respond to that larger call from the whole country, which had become irresistible through the lack of any other well-presented candidacy for the second place on the ticket. Mr. Roosevelt has long been in the game of party politics; but he was never in the game in that craven, abject fashion set forth in these Platt reminiscences. Seldom has anything ever been printed in the field of politics which so illustrates the blindness of a certain type of so-called leader. At Albany this winter we have been reaping the aftermath of the sort of political and legislative life that was built up under the boss-ship of Mr. Platt, the gradual disintegration of which dates from the Governorship of Mr. Roosevelt. Public opinion sometimes arouses itself tardily, but in the end it prevails over the intrigues and star-chamber methods of the bosses and spoilsmen.

Reform Will Go On

After all, the awakened forces of a better political life were not dependent upon keeping Mr. Roosevelt for a second term as Governor. Neither are they now dependent upon running Governor Hughes for a third term or keeping him in reserve as a possible future leader and reformer in the practical politics of New York or of the nation. He has done what he believed to be his duty with courage, and he has won even the reluctant respect of his enemies. He will give his best service to the country on the Supreme Bench at a time when his powers have reached their full development. His immediate program at Albany may suffer some setbacks, but if such a program rested only upon the force and conviction of one man its equilibrium would be unstable. There are many other capable and honest men in both parties in the State of New York; and those people of reform sympathies who have been content to read the newspapers and let Governor Hughes do the work will find it good for them to be compelled to take a more active part. That sort of reform which means honesty and decency in legislation and government, regardless of silly talk about party orthodoxy and loyalty, may receive slight checks now and then, but

it cannot be really defeated. The details of a primary-election law admit of many honest differences, but the fundamental object of purifying our political life is more important than details.

Direct Primaries in New York

The direct-primary bill which represented the views of Governor Hughes was defeated by a close vote in each house of the New York Legislature. The State will not even have the benefit of the restricted use of direct nominations in choosing candidates for the Legislature,—an experiment proposed by a group of eminent citizens, including President Butler, President Schurman, the Hon. Joseph H. Choate, and ex-Mayor Seth Low. The Legislature was in no mood to adopt any nominating scheme which eliminated the party convention or caucus. Just what the people of the State think about the Legislature's action cannot be fully known until the members begin to canvass their districts for re-election next fall. In certain of the "up-State" counties a very strong sentiment in favor of direct primaries has been manifest before and since the defeat of the Hinman-Green bill. At the same time it should be said that the firmest advocates of this reform are less and less disposed to look upon it as a panacea. It is clear that there are many results admittedly desirable in our political life which direct nominations will not bring about.

"The Short Ballot"

It is even questioned whether, in a State like New York, any system of direct nominations would be even moderately successful unless accompanied by the "short ballot,"—the plan under which each voter takes part in choosing at one time only those officials who are important enough for him to care about, few enough for him to know about, and powerful enough to be held to account. There was a striking illustration of the value of the "short ballot" in the Rochester Congressional election on which we commented last month. The "regular" Republican candidate, standing alone, could not secure the vote of thousands of "straight" Republican voters who in an ordinary election would have simply voted the ticket without making any real choice for Congressman. Thus in a single day the "short ballot" broke a machine that had been twenty years in building. It was a convincing demonstration of its effectiveness.

"NUF SED"

(Congratulations in New York on the translation of Governor Hughes to another sphere)

From the *Herald* (Washington)

New Public-Service Commissions

Last month the New York Legislature adopted amendments to the Public-Service Commissions law extending the operation of the law to telephone and telegraph companies and giving the commissions jurisdiction over the commutation rates of railroads. Recently the States of New Jersey and Maryland have created public-utilities commissions resembling in some features the commissions of New York and Wisconsin. Maryland adopts the court-review provision of the Wisconsin law. The New Jersey law covers telephones and all other public utilities, and makes the granting of franchises dependent on the approval of the State Commission. In an early number of this REVIEW we hope to set forth in some detail the more significant things accomplished by the New York and Wisconsin Commissions, respectively, since their establishment. These two States were pioneers in this method of exercising supervision and control over corporations chartered by the State for the operation of public utilities. The New York Legislature voted to adjourn on May 26. As these pages were closed for the press important business was still pending at Albany. The graft inquiry resolutions caused a great deal of acrimonious discussion, and attempts were made to phrase them in such a way as to make the promised investigation practically valueless. Several excellent measures, on the other hand, seemed likely to pass, —notably the bills recommended by the commission on employers' liability.

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SENATOR ROOT, AS HE WAS SAILING, MAY 21

Affairs at Washington

At Washington the work of the long session of Congress is in its final stages. It seemed certain, late in May, that the bill regulating railroads would become a law, although a good deal changed from its original form. The chief trouble has been that the country is not clamoring for railroad regulation, or for any other program of new laws. What the country wants is clean, efficient administration and economical expenditure. By far the most important bill pending before Congress in this session is the one which would put the Post-Office Department on a reorganized business basis. It is not the fault of the present Postmaster-General that he is compelled to run this one great business department of the Government in connection with party politics. But it is certainly somebody's fault that the present administration has not been willing to give its aid to that great and praiseworthy measure, the Carter bill, which would save scores of millions of dollars a year and make it possible to run the postal business of the United States upon modern principles. When we reach the desired goal of a six-year, one-term Presidency, the reasons for keeping the Post-Office Department a political machine will disappear as if by magic. We shall adopt a postal savings-bank system in this session; but sound logic would have demanded the business reorganization of the Post-Office Department before adding new and untried functions. It is probable, also, that the bill for the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as States will be crowded through, although the impropriety of statehood at this time is privately admitted by all public men.

Money for the Tariff Board

A great tribute to Senator Beveridge and those who have advocated expert study of the tariff question as a basis for reform, is paid by President Taft in his ardent espousal of the plan to appropriate $250,000 for the work of the Tariff Board during the coming year. Congress ought, of course, to give the sanction of law to the inquiries that the able members of this board are making. But if the appropriation be granted, the authority to make the desired studies will perhaps have been conferred by implication. Those who criticise the Payne-Aldrich tariff know very well that the time is not ripe for another general tariff revision. We can get along and do business exceedingly well under almost any kind of tariff. But the country has no patience with the attempt to snub and to sidetrack every Republican Congressman or Senator who believes it to be his right to justify the grounds upon which last summer he voted against the Payne-Aldrich bill. Parties nowadays are not held together by adherence to any precise dogmas. They do not differ radically about railroad regulation, tariff policies, or any other particular issue. The parties at present are traditional associations which justify themselves not so much by their creeds as by their intelligence and efficiency in doing public business. It is not a good time for either party to raise tests of orthodoxy against men who have been its able and useful exponents.

The Ballinger-Pinchot Affair

Testimony in the long-drawn-out investigation of the Glavis-Pinchot charges against Secretary Ballinger came to an end with the third week of May. Senator Nelson seems to have made an excellent chairman of the joint committee. Senator Root, who sailed just as the testimony ended to represent us in the arbitration at The Hague, was a long-suffering but faithful member of the committee who evidently felt that the whole thing was more like a church quarrel than like the exposure of any real misconduct. Ex-Secretary Garfield, Mr. Pinchot, and various others

had convinced themselves that Secretary Ballinger was far more friendly to the corporations and the special interests that desired to exploit Alaska and our Western domain than he was toward the policy of "conservation" as they interpreted it. President Taft, the Attorney-General, and others could not find that Secretary Ballinger had acted in bad faith in the matter of certain entrymen who claimed allotments of coal land in Alaska under the laws provided for granting such public property to private individuals. The testimony is voluminous; and until it has been digested, presented in briefs to the committee by opposing counsel, and finally passed upon by Senator Nelson and his colleagues, we can see no advantage that could accrue from our endeavor in these pages to point out any conclusions.

The Income-Tax Amendment

Although Kentucky is to be added to the list of States that have ratified the income-tax amendment, since it has been decided that one of the attempts of the legislature to take such action was constitutionally correct, the vote of the States that have thus far committed themselves on the proposition is far from reassuring to friends of the amendment. The States whose legislatures have ratified are Alabama, South Carolina, Mississippi, Oklahoma, Kentucky, Illinois, and Maryland. The most spectacular gain made by the amendment last month was in the State of New York, where ratification was defeated in the lower house of the legislature by a single vote and was actually carried in the Senate. But a miss is as good as a mile and the Empire State cannot yet be counted in the ratification column. Neither can Virginia, Rhode Island, or Massachusetts, whose legislatures have rejected the amendment by decisive majorities, while the legislatures of Connecticut, Georgia, Ohio and New Jersey failed to take action. If eight more votes should be cast against the amendment (in addition to the four already recorded) its defeat would be made certain. At least as many as eight States, whose legislatures will not be in session before January next, are counted as "doubtful."

Railway Rates Follow Wages

The general increases in wages given by the railroads, which were noted last month in this department of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, are now being followed, as was expected, by increases of passenger and freight rates. The New Haven Road, the New York Central, the Jersey Central, and several other railroads serving New York City have announced increased passenger fares, or are known to be considering such a move. This additional sting in the increased cost of living has produced much indignation among the residents of the suburban districts near New York, who must regard the cost of their monthly commutation tickets as a fixed charge, and who have a very lively sense of this particular item when they buy, each month, a new commutation "book." It is one of those very direct taxes on the consumer which catches his attention more readily and offensively than a ten times greater, but indirect, tax through high Government tariff rates or high railroad freight rates. Commuters have organized at many points to fight the increase.

The Embattled Commuters

As a matter of fact, the commutation rates of the railroad lines serving the suburbs of our great cities seem remarkably low, and increases in them can be more easily defended, arguing from surface facts, than could many of the present proposals of the railway managers. For instance, the New Haven Railroad sells its commutation books at a rate which gives it considerably less than half a cent a mile. When one gets below the surface and considers the factors of relative density of traffic on the one hand and increased cost of expensive terminals on the other, the layman is out of his depth. The railroads contend that these monthly suburban tickets have always been sold at a loss, the one compensating factor being the building up of the territory served, the resulting increase in freight business, and the higher priced passenger traffic gained from the non-commuting members of the suburban families. Of much larger importance is the general movement toward higher freight rates, to compensate for the recent wage increases, which, it is estimated, will aggregate $150,000,000 yearly of additional expense in the operation of the railroads. These proposed freight-rate increases are not taking the form of a horizontal raising of commodity rates, but of increases in the so-called class rates. By this method it is expected that the higher costs that finally reach the consumers will come on such articles as pianos, automobiles, and other articles of luxury, rather than on the staple necessities of life.

Europe Buys Our Railway Bonds

The course of prices for American securities has been downward since last autumn. With numerous brief rallies and, again, periods of quiescence, the history of the six months on the Stock Exchange shows clearly that we are in a "bear market," following the two years' rise of prices from the panic levels in the autumn of 1907. In April, at the time when large exports of gold from this country were daily occurrences, the stock market looked weaker than at any time within eighteen months. It was at this time that announcement was made of arrangements for the marketing in Europe of very large blocks of American railway bonds, a proceeding which has distinctly heartened the American investor. Our railways need, nowadays, such huge sums of money to handle properly the increasing traffic of the country, and for terminal facilities which are constantly becoming more costly, that American investors are not always in the mood to supply the requisite funds, and each failure to sell an issue of bonds makes, by unsettling confidence, more difficult the next attempt. Thus the news that French and German bankers had the faith in our railway securities to sell them to their clients gave fresh hope and stimulus.

How Foreigners Have Profited

One of the largest issues to be placed abroad is that of the Baltimore & Ohio Railway; a large part of its new $40,000,000 of collateral trust notes, running three years, will probably be taken up by foreign investors. French bankers are arranging to help dispose of the new Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul debenture bonds, of which $50,000,000 have been authorized, and the German market is to absorb probably $10,000,000 of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas bonds. In Paris the "Big Four" Railroad is selling $10,000,000 of debenture bonds, and the general development 4 per cent. bonds of the Southern Railway have been introduced on the Berlin Bourse. The financial logic of this proceeding is, of course, that the money coming from foreigners who purchase these securities will compensate for our relatively unfavorable trade balance of the past year. On the news of these transactions the rate of exchange promptly fell to a point where it was unprofitable to export gold from America. The French, the Germans, and the Dutch have for a generation shown great faith in the American railway securities, especially in those young and struggling railway ventures in new sections of our country whose difficulties we ourselves could see too clearly. By purchasing the stocks and bonds of such railways at low figures and locking them up, the thrifty Hollander and Frenchman and German have made very handsome profits.

Kansas Corn and Ceylon Rubber

Literally at the other end of the earth from the business of farming in our Middle West is the business of growing rubber trees in the Far East. Yet the Kansas corn fields are linked to the rubber plantations of Ceylon and Java and Sumatra by one of those commercial chains of modern human association that disdain continents and oceans intervening. It seems that nearly half of the automobiles sold in America are bought by farmers, mostly Middle Western farmers. In making enough tires to fit out these automobiles a demand has been created for rubber that has put the price of the crude article up to $3 a pound. Only two years ago it could be bought for 65 cents. Of course, even the automobile-justifying prosperity of the Wall Street broker or the Ohio manufacturer is, in the final analysis, dependent upon bounteous farm products. So the size of our coming crop will determine in a large degree the activity in launching plantations of young rubber trees across the globe, which so far this year has been unprecedented. In financing these new rubber companies, the English public, centering around the rubber market of Mincing Lane, London, has worked itself into a speculative craze. Some further account of this veritable mania is given on page 757. During the first four months of this year no less than 506 new rubber companies were floated from London. The face value of their shares ran to about $30,000,000, but calculating the enormous premiums asked and obtained,—some two-shilling shares are now selling as high as eighty shillings—it appears that the English public, including large investors and small, have put into this artificial rubber planting a sum equal to perhaps half a billion dollars.

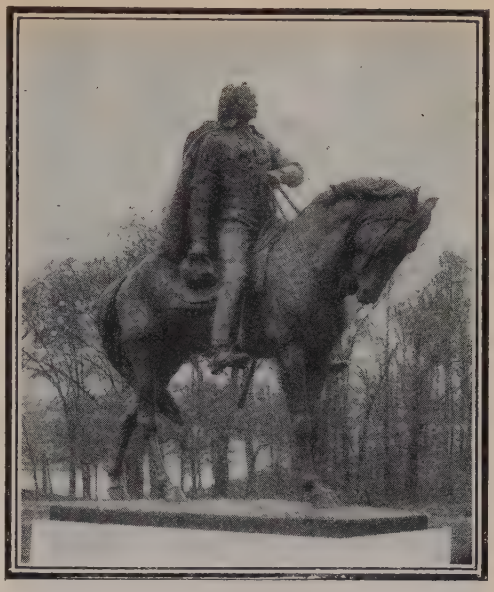
Cold and Crop Scares

The cold storm that raged through the Middle West and the Southwest in the last week of April brought the most alarming rumors of crop-killing. Many of the newspapers published "scarehead" accounts of the farmers' losses, announcing that the cotton

crop was devastated, the winter wheat crop all but ruined, and the fruit crop utterly gone. It is worth while to note the occurrence of these sensational rumors in the most reputable public prints and the basis of fact as viewed a month after, because they are typical events of the sort. In a year when the course of finance and industry is critically dependent on the farmers' continued prosperity, any untoward behavior of the elements, assisted, as it generally is, by the deliberate exaggerations of speculators, is sure to get on the nerves of those whose business it is to give the news to the public. The facts, then, as against rumors of devastation and ruin, are pretty well indicated on the Government's crop report of May 1. This shows a condition of winter wheat actually better than the condition reported as of April 1, 82.1, as compared with 80.8 on the former date. May 1, 1909, showed a condition of 83.5 for winter wheat, and the average of the last ten years is 86.7. To be sure there is, this year, a very large item of abandoned wheat fields,—over 4,000,000 acres,—but the area sown in the first instance was so unusually ample that even after this deduction there remains an acreage of growing wheat, this May, more than 700,000 acres larger than last.

Saved by the law of Averages

The greatest loss in acreage came in Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri, where the wheat was winter killed. This land the farmers have retilled and sown with corn and oats. The net result is a prospect for a slightly larger production of wheat this year than last. With cotton, too, the prospects are for a fair crop, and the condition of rye is exceptionally excellent. The fruit of the Middle West and Southwest has been very hard hit by the frosts; there were 6 or 8 inches of snow in the middle States on April 24. But the great new fruit-growing areas of the far Northwest promise a bumper crop. In truth, the agricultural development over this broad and varied country has brought about such a wide distribution of elemental risks,—analogous to that distribution of investment risks that our financial editor is constantly advising,—that it seems pretty hard to conceive of a situation where Oregon apples and Missouri orchards, California, Oklahoma and Missouri wheat, Iowa corn and Mississippi cotton, should all, or even most of them, meet disaster in any one season.



THE STATUE OF GENERAL CUSTER TO BE UNVEILED AT MONROE, MICH., ON JUNE 4

The Potter Statue of Custer

On June 4 President Taft and a large gathering of public men will attend the unveiling of the Custer statue at Monroe, Mich. Monroe is a little town settled by the French a hundred years ago,—the oldest town in the State, in fact. It was the birthplace of Mrs. Custer and General Custer's home by adoption. Three years ago the State of Michigan appropriated a sum of money for the purpose of erecting this equestrian statue of General Custer, and the committee in charge of the work displayed excellent judgment in selecting Mr. E. C. Potter, of Greenwich, Conn., as the sculptor. The statue, a small picture of which appears on this page, is a noble and inspiring figure,—a splendid addition to the small number of really worthy public works of art that have come from American sculptors. Mr. Potter as a modeler of horses has a certain homely reality of friendship and sympathy for the animal, together with a large human feeling for any work in hand, that gives his figures a classic strength and endurance. His imagination, too, is of the order that thoroughly fits him to suggest the brilliant spirit of the Indian fighter, without a suspicion of the mock heroic. To have such a work of art come from the brain and hand of an American to stand before the eyes of Americans is truly a more noteworthy matter than many matters that currently claim more of our attention.

LOUIS PAULHAN
(Who won the London-to-Manchester aeroplane contest)

Paulhan,—London to Manchester!

With the coming of milder weather the "man-birds," like their feathered prototypes, have become more active, and during the last month or two have achieved many notable flights. The most remarkable recent feat was Paulhan's prize-winning trip from London to Manchester, in a Farman biplane, on April 27-28. For this achievement the London *Daily Mail* had for three years been offering a reward of $50,000. The distance between the two cities is 185 miles and the conditions of the prize allowed two stops, the flight to be made in twenty-four hours. Paulhan accomplished it in twelve hours, descending only once. His actual flying time was four hours and eleven minutes, the last twenty-four miles of the trip being made in twenty-four minutes. Grahame White, Paulhan's English competitor, came within sixty miles of Manchester when he succumbed, under the great strain of endeavoring to maintain the equilibrium of his machine in the face of a gusty wind. Paulhan, too, battled with the wind all the way, but his greater skill and experience brought him through victorious. Both men flew a considerable distance at night, which made the trip an extra-hazardous one, especially when making starts and descents in the darkness, as they did.

Other Aerial Achievements

Paulhan again distinguished himself later in the month by a cross-country flight from Chevilly, near Orleans, in France, to Arcis-sur-Aube, a distance of 130 miles. Farman had already traveled 50 miles in the same machine, the total distance of 220 miles thus covered in these two relays by Farman and Paulhan having been accomplished in five hours. Sommer, the French aviator, recently performed the wonderful feat of carrying three passengers besides himself in an aeroplane flight of five miles. Another daring performance in the latter part of April was that of Emile Dubonnet, who maneuvered a distance of about 17 miles over the very heart of the city of Paris. On May 15 Daniel Kinet, a Belgian aviator, broke the record for a flight with a passenger, remaining in the air for two hours and fifty-one minutes. The last previous record of this kind was made by Orville Wright at Berlin, his time being one hour and thirty-five minutes. A successful ten-day aviation meet took place at Nice, beginning April 15, and was attended by many notable flyers and several royal personages, including the kings of Denmark and Sweden. One of the chief events of this occasion was a 50-mile flight over the sea by Rolls, an Englishman. It has now been definitely decided that the honor of entertaining the international aviation meet to be held in this country in October, for which half a dozen places have been competing, will go to Long Island. The exact spot has not as yet been fixed, but it will probably be between Belmont Park and Hempstead Plains. Boston, also, is planning a ten-day meet to be held in September, at which the Wright brothers, Curtiss, and a number of foreigners are expected to perform. Mr. Curtiss, by the way, in a flight on May 19, alighted on the surface of Lake Keuka, in New York, and demonstrated the ability of his aeroplane to remain upright in the water.

Disasters to Dirigibles

While the heavier-than-air machines have been scoring these successes, the dirigibles, unfortunately, have suffered a series of setbacks. The German balloon *Pommern,* on April 3, fell into the Baltic Sea, three of its four occupants being drowned. On the 18th of the same month the *Delitzsch,* with four men on board, burst in a thunder storm at a height of several thousand feet, all the occupants being killed by the fall. A fleet of

German dirigibles comprising the *Zeppelin II.,* the *Gross II.,* and the *Parseval I,* flew from Cologne to Homburg on April 22, where they were reviewed by Emperor William. Strong winds arising, the *Gross II.,* which is a non-rigid type, was deflated and shipped back to Cologne by rail. The *Parseval* made the return flight in safety, but the *Zeppelin II.,* having been compelled to descend at Limburg, was forced from its moorings at that place by the heavy winds, which finally drove it to the ground at Weilburg and demolished it. This was the *Zeppelin* that made the famous trip from Lake Constance to Bitterfield and return in the spring of 1909, remaining in the air continuously for thirty-eight hours. This reminds us of the *Zeppelin* that met an untimely end in August, 1908, after making a record trip of twenty-four hours. The catastrophe that overtook the *Republique,* which, on September 25, 1909, dropped from a height of about 600 feet to the earth, killing its four passengers, is still fresh in the memory. These disasters to dirigibles also recall the fate, some years ago, of *La Patrie,* one of the first of the French military balloons, which was blown away by a hurricane, carried across the English Channel and over Ireland, and was lost in the ocean beyond.

Weston, the Walker

To the accompaniment of music and with an escort of police and old friends, to say nothing of an admiring crowd of citizens, eager to get a look at him and to walk a few blocks by his side, Edward Payson Weston, the veteran pedestrian, tramped down Broadway, New York, on May 2, to the City Hall, thus finishing his long walk from Santa Monica, Cal. Erect and alert, a healthy tan on his face, and with not an ounce of superfluous flesh, Weston stepped along as jauntily as though he had not just laid seventy-one years and 3500 miles behind him. He had completed the trip from coast to coast in exactly seventy-eight days, and was well pleased with his achievement. Everywhere on his journey Weston had been kindly treated and, though he experienced several mishaps, nothing seriously delayed him. This seasoned pedestrian has reeled off many thousands of miles since his first long walk from Boston to Washington to attend the inauguration of President Lincoln, and the exercise has benefited him greatly. As a boy Weston was not strong, so he turned to walking to improve his health. He was so successful in this that he resolved to preach to his fellow men and women of all ages, both by precept and example, the gospel of "using one's legs in walking."

EDWARD PAYSON WESTON, THE PEDESTRIAN, ON BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY, AS HE NEARED THE END OF HIS LONG WALK ACROSS THE CONTINENT

Settling All Our Differences with Canada

A highly important step in the betterment of the relations between the United States and the Dominion of Canada, which are at the present time, thanks to the recent agreement over tariff matters, more cordial than ever before, will be taken during the first days of this month, when the learned legal counsel for the United States, Great Britain, and Canada will argue before the august international court of arbitration at The Hague the American, British, and Canadian contentions in the long-drawn-out fishery dispute between the United States and Newfoundland Governments. We comment on this elsewhere, with reference to its bearing on Anglo-American relations. Late last month ratifications between the American and Canadian authorities were exchanged of the treaty of January, 1909, between the United States and Great Britain, known as the International Waterways Treaty. This agreement, which confirms to both countries "uninterrupted rights of free navigation in all boundary waters on each side of the line," fixes the amount of water that may be diverted from the Niagara River for power purposes and invests the International Joint Commission with power not only to decide all questions concerning the use of boundary waters but with jurisdiction "to investigate and report at the request of either country on any question arising between the United States and Canada along their common frontier." A complete understanding of the fisheries matter will find practically no questions of importance at issue between the two central governments.

Our Trade with the Dominion

The expected prohibition of the exportation of pulp wood from the Province of Quebec to the United States was published late in April, the regulation going into effect on the first of last month. This regulation has already affected unfavorably the business of manufacturing news print paper in the United States. It is believed, however, that in the new reciprocity treaty, negotiations for which will soon be begun between the two countries, this question of wood-pulp exports will be settled in a fair and equitable manner. It is interesting to note that, according to the official figures of our trade with the world for the first nine months of the current fiscal year, our business with Canada shows an increase of more than $40,000,000 over that of the year 1909, an increase which in itself far exceeds our total sales to China and Japan. Further evidence of the closeness of the relations between the two peoples is found in a most interesting report recently issued by the United States Consul at Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island. This official has made a careful investigation, and reports that in the fiscal year 1909 the Dominion imported books, periodicals, pamphlets, and other printed matter to the value of three and a half millions of dollars. Of this total, "literature" to the value of two and a half millions came from the United States. Since a large proportion of this printed matter consists of advertising, or periodical literature accompanied by advertisements, the Consul concludes that "American literature is the most potent promoter of American trade in Canada."

General Election in Mexico

On the sixteenth of the present month a national election to choose a President to succeed General Porfirio Diaz will be held throughout the Republic of Mexico. There is, of course, no doubt that General Diaz will be re-elected to succeed himself, and it is almost as certain that Señor Ramon Corral, General Diaz's choice, will be elected Vice-President. The present summer will be an eventful one for Mexico. The festivities attendant upon the celebration of her centenary of independence will begin soon after the election, and culminate in the two days September 15 and 16, the first being the eightieth birthday of General Diaz and the second the anniversary of the signing of Mexican independence. Another important Latin-American election was that which took place in Venezuela on April 27, when Dr. Juan Vincente Gomez was elected by Congress Constitutional President of the country for a term of four years. Dr. Gomez, it will be remembered, succeeded to the Presidency provisionally last year upon the flight of the once famous general and former President, Cipriano Castro, from Venezuela.

The Earthquake in Costa Rica

More than two thousand lives and an appalling amount of property were lost in a series of destructive earthquake shocks occurring in the latter part of last month in different parts of the republic of Costa Rica. A number of cities suffered, although the town of Cartago bore the brunt of the catastrophe. The International Central American Temple of Justice and Peace in Cartago city, erected

THE RUINS OF THE SPLENDID PALACE OF PEACE AND JUSTICE AT CARTAGO, COSTA RICA, DESTROYED BY THE RECENT EARTHQUAKE

through the generosity of Mr. Andrew Carnegie and almost completed, was utterly destroyed. Almost immediately upon the receipt of this news, however, Mr. Barrett, Director of the International Bureau of American Republics, informed the Costa Rican Minister in Washington that Mr. Carnegie had promised to rebuild the Peace Palace. Costa Rica has been the most peaceful and prosperous of the Central American countries, and in her affliction she certainly has the respectful sympathy of the rest of the world. The civil war in Nicaragua continues, battles occurring at spasmodic intervals. Late last month threatened attacks upon American citizens at Bluefields rendered necessary the landing of several hundred American bluejackets from the United States gunboats *Dubuque* and *Paducah*.

Peru's Dispute with Ecuador

Vague rumors of revolt and war, followed by definite reports of efforts at preserving the peace, characterized the news from more than one part of Latin America last month. The boundary dispute between Ecuador and Peru, the history of which has been already set forth in these pages, became very serious during the last weeks of May, and the movement of large bodies of troops of both nations toward the frontier threatened an early outbreak of open hostilities. A report from Lima, the capital of Peru, dated May 18, announced definitely that it had been decided by the Peruvian Cabinet to accept the offer of joint mediation by the United States, Brazil, and Argentina on all questions at issue between Peru, Ecuador, and Chile. It seems more than probable that Ecuador also will accept this proposal and that the threatened rupture will be averted. The association of Brazil and Argentina with the United States in this work of peace should constitute an irresistible moral force. There are many excellent reasons why Peru and Ecuador should heed the voices of their South American neighbors. Argentina is, in a few weeks, to entertain representatives not only of all the Latin-American nations but of peoples all over the world in the celebration of the centenary of South American independence. Brazil has just settled the last of her boundary disputes, a long standing one with Peru herself, and this amicably without any outside pressure. It is quite unthinkable, in the words of Secretary Knox, "that Ecuador and Peru should go to war over a boundary dispute which both, by solemn agreement, submitted to arbitration."

"The Peace Maker of Europe"

When Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne of England in 1901 he found his empire almost completely isolated in the political groupings of the world powers. The Boer War, which had only just been

THE PICTURESQUE, BEAUTIFUL OLD SPANISH CATHEDRAL AT CARTAGO, DESTROYED BY THE EARTHQUAKE

From *Punch* (London)

concluded, had brought upon Britain the enmity, if not the bitter hatred, of almost every other European nation. Germany was intensely anti-British, Russia scarcely less so, and the bitterness in France, increased by the historic enmity between the two countries, the outcome of the Fashoda incident and the attitude of the British press in the "affaire Dreyfus," who was as yet unjustified, had strained the relations between the French and English peoples almost to the breaking point. Thanks chiefly to Edward's unfailing tact and diplomacy, aided by his personal popularity with the French people, the age-long hostility between England and France has now been converted into an understanding, an "entente cordiale," which the French press has recently been asserting, amounts to little less than an open alliance. When, in October, 1904, one of the captains of the Russian Baltic fleet on its way to Japanese waters lost his head and fired on British fishing boats, and all England was wrought up to a war fever, it was in large measure due to the good sense, tact, and patience of the British King that the incident passed off without marring the cordial relations between the two nations. Later Edward ably seconded the efforts of the British Foreign Office which finally resulted in a friendly understanding between Britain and the Muscovite Empire regarding important questions in Asia.

Increasing British Prestige

On his accession to the throne, the German Empire undoubtedly dictated the politics of the Continent. Germany is still the most powerful individual member of the concert of Europe, but by means of her series of "understandings" with Russia and France, and her traditional friendships with Italy, Spain, and Portugal, and the Scandinavian countries, England has emerged from her isolation, and a more nearly perfect balance of power now replaces the preponderance of Teutonic power of a decade ago. In the achievement of this "balance" the late King Edward's influence was a powerful factor. During the closing months of his life, after repeated personal efforts, he, it is generally believed in England, had succeeded in restoring a large measure of harmony between Germany and his own country. The presence of nine kings of European countries and more than twenty representatives from other nations added dignity and impressiveness to the imposing ceremonies attending the burial services. After lying in state for several days in Westminster Hall, the body was borne to Windsor Castle for burial in St. George's Chapel, where it was interred with royal honors on May 20. The ceremonies attending the funeral are reported to have been the most impressive in all British history.

Accession of George V.

It's a fiction of British governmental procedure that the King of England never dies. The occupant of the throne changes, but, automatically, upon the death of one sovereign, the heir apparent succeeds to the kingly office. At the moment of King Edward's death, therefore, a little before midnight on May 6, George Frederick, Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall and York, became King of Great Britain and Ireland, Emperor of India and the British possessions beyond the seas, taking the oath as George V. Early on the morning of May 9, the public proclamation of the accession of the new King was made, with the ancient and customary ceremonies, in all their picturesque details, first in the old city of London, then at St. James's Palace, and afterwards at Charing Cross, Temple Bar and the Royal Exchange. Similar proclama-

SANDRINGHAM, THE ENGLISH PALACE, WHICH THE LATE KING EDWARD GAVE TO HIS QUEEN, ALEXANDRA, AND WHERE SHE MAY IN THE FUTURE RESIDE

tions were made in other cities throughout the United Kingdom, and, although with less ceremony, throughout the Colonies.

The Political Situation

A situation of grave political moment, though not a crisis, as we have already pointed out, confronts Great Britain with the opening of the new reign, a situation in which the personality of the late King Edward was an important factor. The progress of the struggle between the two Houses of Parliament during the past year has been recorded from month to month in these pages. The Parliamentary situation in the middle of last month was briefly this: The Lloyd-George budget, after some slight, merely verbal changes, has been repassed by the Commons, accepted by the Lords, and received the royal assent. The Parliamentary vacation, originally set to end on May 26, was, owing to the death of the King, prolonged until the eighth day of the present month. During the last days of Edward's reign a new general election had been predicted before midsummer. British politicians, however, now admit that an appeal to the country is not likely to take place before the beginning of the year, although unexpected political possibilities may hurry the country into another general election on the question of the veto power of the Lords, before King George is accustomed to his new responsibilities.

The Election in France

Very quietly and with no sensational developments the general Parliamentary elections in France were held on April 24, and the supplementary balloting one week later. All the members of the cabinet were re-elected. The general result was an increased government strength and a slight increase in the Socialist representation in the Chamber of Deputies. The outcome of the election would seem to be that the French people are quite satisfied with the Republic, and with the politicians who have organized the present working majority or "bloc" in Parliament, which is another way of saying that the people are satisfied with Premier Briand and his ministers. The slight change in grouping among the deputies is considered an indorsement of the popular demand for a reform of the election system, for changing the basis of voting from small districts to departments.

Launching the South African Union

Beginning with the first day of the present month the new United States of South Africa becomes an accomplished fact. On May 31 the South African Union, by which the four British colonies will be merged into a single central government, was proclaimed. A few days ago the first Governor-General of the new nation, Mr. Herbert (now Lord) Gladstone, arrived at Cape Town, and it is expected that within the ensuing month he

M. ARISTIDE BRIAND, PREMIER OF FRANCE

will undertake the duties of government, pending the elections to a union Parliament. The question of Briton, Boer, and Zulu, and their respective rights and disqualifications, is the main one agitating the South African people, and it will require all of Lord Gladstone's delicacy and diplomacy to handle it. His first task was to select a leader to be the executive of the new nation, and to perform the duties of government until the elections are held. Mr. J. X. Merriman, the Prime Minister of Cape Colony, who advocates the perpetuation of existing parties; General Botha, the former Boer leader, and Dr. Jameson, who made the famous raid into the Transvaal before the war, the two latter representing the new parties, were the possible leaders. General Botha was finally selected.

Some Interesting Fairs and Celebrations

The past few weeks have seen the formal opening, in a very quiet manner, of a half-dozen or more world's fairs and commemorative exhibitions. On April 23 the new King of the Belgians officially opened the gates of the Brussels Universal International Exhibition. This is the fifth exposition that has been held in the little kingdom during the past quarter-century, and is a remarkable testimony to the ability of the Belgians to conceive and carry out successfully enterprises of this kind. A feature of the exposition is the rather close grouping of the buildings with a view to saving time and trouble to the sightseer. At Shepherd's Bush, a suburb of London, there was held two years ago a "Franco-British Exposition," which proved very interesting and popular. With great ingenuity these same grounds and buildings have been transformed into a Japanese-British Exposition. Workmen and artists from the Mikado's empire have far outstripped their British rivals and have made the fair truly Japanese, giving an intimation of what the world may expect to see in Tokio in 1917. China has also caught this exposition fever, and in the old city of Nanking her first world's fair has been staged, as is set forth in our article on page 691. In Venice, also, there is being held another of those international art exhibitions for which that city is noted, many works by American artists being represented. Before this issue of the REVIEW reaches its readers there will have been opened to the public the greater portion of the comprehensive scheme of exhibitions which have been arranged in Buenos Aires to commemorate the centenary of Argentine independence.

The Comet and What We Have Learned

It is doubtful whether in many years there has been as much written and printed in the newspapers, with less foundation in exact truth, as the reports and the speculation which have appeared in the periodical press of the entire world during the past few weeks on the subject of Halley's comet and its appearance and behavior on its present visit to our skies. It may be said, even if it sounds somewhat paradoxical, that most of the recent additions to our knowledge of these erratic, astronomical bodies known as comets, are negative. In past ages, mankind has known or surmised a great deal about comets that was not so. There has always been speculation as to the direct results that would happen if a comet should strike our earth, or fall into the sun, or, as has been particularly feared just now, if our globe should pass through the tail of Halley's comet in particular. What we know about this particular comet may be very briefly put. It has a periodicity

Photograph by Paul Thompson

WATCHING HALLEY'S COMET

(A comet party of New Yorkers on the roof of the Waldorf-Astoria, the great hotel of the metropolis, observing the comet on the morning of May 18)

or time of passage around its orbit of seventy-five or seventy-six years. There are historical records of its having been seen at such regular intervals back to a century or more before the beginnings of the Christian era. In our issue for April Professor Mitchell describes comets, particularly the one named after Halley, at length. This comet has a head or nucleus which is generally computed by astronomers as slightly larger than the bulk of our own earth. It has,—or had,—what is known as a tail, which, during the period of observation, when first, as a teloscopic object it was discovered last September, until the eighteenth of last month, when, in accordance with the calculations of the astronomers, the head made its transit over the sun's disk, varied in length from 20 to 50 millions of miles. Eminent astronomical authorities all over the world believed that on the evening of May 18 the earth, traveling in one direction at the rate of approximately 20 miles a second, would pass through this tail, which, if it kept pace with the speed of the head, would be going in the other direction at twice that rate. But whether the calculations were at fault, or whether after all there be such a thing as a comet's tail, instead of, as some astronomers believe, merely a reflected light in its wake, the fact remains that there was no visible evidence of our passage through the so-called tail on the date set by the astronomers. By the time this issue of the REVIEW reaches its readers, it is confidently predicted, the comet will have been for a week a brilliant spectacle in the evening sky. Undoubtedly when the observations of the astronomers all over the world, made through the finest of modern instruments, are digested and published we will know a good deal more about the comet than we now know. Probably as has already been intimated we will have to unlearn a good deal that we now think we know. Owing to exaggerated reports and the age-long superstition of ignorant people there was much apprehension as to what would happen to the earth at its closest proximity to the comet. Many negroes of our own Southern States, particularly, are reported to have been in a state of mind bordering on frenzy of fear. The results of this appearance of the comet will probably be very good. Certainly superstition has received another blow, and a general interest in astronomy has been aroused.

Photograph, Paul Thompson, N. Y.

COMING TO SEE ROOSEVELT—TWO OKLAHOMA BOYS ON A 2,000-MILE HORSEBACK JOURNEY

(Louis and Temple Abernathy, aged ten and six respectively, the sons of John R. Abernathy, United States Marshal at Guthrie, Okla., are on their way to New York to welcome the ex-President)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From April 21 to May 20, 1910)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

April 21-23.—The Senate discusses the Administration's Interstate Commerce bill and the inquiry into the cost of living.

April 25.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) withdraws his resolution for an appropriation of $65,000 to continue the cost-of-living inquiry.

April 27.—In the Senate, Messrs. Rayner (Dem., Md.) and Bailey (Dem., Tex.) criticise the Republican "insurgents" for "flirting" with the Democratic party.

April 28.—In the House, the Insurgent-Democratic coalition forces the passage of an amendment to the Interstate Commerce measure, including telegraph and telephone companies within its scope.

April 29.—In the House, the combined "Insurgents" and Democrats amend the Interstate Commerce bill so as to provide for the physical valuation of railroads.

May 2.—The Senate passes the bill creating a bureau of mines in the Interior Department and confirms the nomination of Governor Hughes to the Supreme Court bench.

May 3.—The Senate strikes out from the Administration's Interstate Commerce bill the sections authorizing traffic agreements and railroad mergers.... The House withdraws the section of the Interstate Commerce measure relating to traffic agreements, but retains the long-and-short-haul clause.

May 4.—The Senate passes the Pension Appropriation bill ($155,000,000) and the bill providing for the raising of the *Maine*.

May 6.—The Senate passes the Post-Office Appropriation bill ($241,000,000).... The House strikes out from the Interstate Commerce measure the section authorizing mergers.

May 10.—The House, by vote of 200 to 126, passes the Administration's Interstate Commerce bill as amended.

May 13.—In the Senate, a compromise amendment on the long-and-short-haul clause of the railroad bill which creates a Court of Commerce In the House, Mr. Fordney (Rep., Mich.) defends the Payne-Aldrich tariff.

May 16.—The Senate passes the clause of the railroad bill which creates a Court of Commerce with jurisdiction over appeals from decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission....In the House, the resolution to change the date of inauguration is defeated.

May 18.—The Senate amends the House provision of the Railroad bill relating to suits before the Interstate Commerce Commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

April 25.—President Taft appoints Governor Charles E. Hughes, of New York, to be associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, succeeding the late David J. Brewer.

April 26.—The President appoints Gen. Nelson H. Henry as Surveyor of the Port of New York....The New York Court of Appeals declares constitutional the law limiting the labor of railway telegraphers to eight hours a day.

April 27.—The United States marshal and a district attorney in Alaska are dismissed by President Taft for incompetency.

April 28.—The Democratic State Convention at Indianapolis indorses John W. Kern as candidate for United States Senator.

April 29.—The Rhode Island Legislature opposes the imposition of a federal income tax.

April 30.—In a special message to Congress President Taft urges the completion of Panama Canal defenses by 1915....A Democratic member of the Illinois Legislature declares that he received $1000 from his party leader for voting for the election of William Lorimer as United States Senator.

May 3.—The New York Assembly for the second time votes against the income-tax amendment to the federal constitution.

May 4.—The Massachusetts House votes against the income-tax amendment.

May 6.—The Democratic leader of the Illinois House and three other persons are indicted in Chicago in connection with the bribery charges.

May 10.—The Massachusetts House passes a resolution favoring a constitutional amendment providing for popular election of United States Senators....Senators Dolliver and Cummins address a meeting of the new "Progressive" party in Iowa.

May 17.—The New York State Senate indorses the income-tax amendment.

May 20.—The taking of testimony in the Ballinger-Pinchot investigation is completed.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

April 24.—The general election in France passes off quietly, resulting in a slightly increased government majority.

April 27.—Juan Vincente Gomez is elected by Congress as president of Venezuela....The Finance bill passes the British House of Commons.

April 28.—The House of Lords, without division, passes the British Finance bill....The program of the new Italian ministry includes extension of the suffrage, state primary schools, and a liberal ecclesiastical policy.

April 29.—The British budget received royal assent and becomes a law.

April 30.—Turkish troops defeat the Albanian forces, clearing Katchanik Pass.

May 4.—The Turkish chamber reverses its recent action and grants the usual allowances to husbands of princesses, the ministers thereupon withdrawing their resignations.

May 5.—The Argentine parliament is opened with a message from President Alcorta.

May 6.—King Edward VII. died at Buckingham Palace, London, after a short illness (see page 689).

May 7.—George Frederick, only son of the late King Edward, is proclaimed King George V. of England....The Finnish Diet defies the Czar to exert his authority over Finland.

May 8.—Premier Canalejas and his supporters are returned to power in the Spanish elections.

May 10.—The German Reichstag passes the bill limiting the production of potash, in spite of American protest.

May 14.—The Norwegian Oldesthing votes increased suffrage rights for women.

May 17.—The body of King Edward VII. is borne on a gun carriage from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Hall.

May 19.—The privy council of Japan adopts a convention for the protection of copyrights.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

May 5.—Secretary Knox and Ambassador Bryce exchange ratifications of the new waterway treaty with Canada.

May 8.—The Bureau of the American Republics, at Washington, receives an appeal, indorsed by 90 per cent. of Nicaragua's land-holders, requesting the United States to intervene in the affairs of the republic.

May 14.—It is announced at Washington that the Chinese railroad loan has been successfully settled, England, France, Germany, and the United States participating equally....King George, of England, has been asked by the United States and Chile to arbitrate the Alsop claim....Secretary Knox proposes to the Canadian Government that tariff negotiations be commenced at an early date.

May 16.—Germany objects to the Anglo-Russian note on Persian loans and railway concessions....Troops are being massed near the frontier by Peru and Ecuador.

May 18.—It is announced that consent has been obtained from Brazil and Argentina to join with the United States in an offer of mediation between Ecuador and Peru.

May 20.—Chile decides to accept a loan of $13,000,000 from the Rothschilds, of London.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

April 22.—The general strike of the building trades in Berlin is ended by arbitration.... Eighteen men are killed by a gas explosion in a coal mine near Amsterdam, Ohio.

April 23.—Theodore Roosevelt delivers an address before the University of Paris on the duties of a citizen of a republic....King Albert opens the international exposition at Brussels....Snow and freezing temperature through-

out the Middle West and South destroy fruit, cotton, and other crops....Fire sweeps over a great part of Lake Charles, La., rendering 2000 people homeless.

April 25.—$10,000,000 in gold is engaged in New York for export to London.

April 26.—The new building of the International Bureau of the American Republics is dedicated at Washington....The common stock of the United States Steel Corporation is placed on a 5 per cent. basis.

April 27.—Oscar Hammerstein retires from the grand-opera field, the Metropolitan Opera House taking over his interests.

April 28.—Louis Paulhan flies from London to Manchester (185 miles) with one stop, winning the *Daily Mail's* $50,000 prize.

April 29.—Theodore Roosevelt and his party are guests of Queen Wilhelmina of Holland.

May 2.—Ex-President Roosevelt and his party are guests of the Danish Crown Prince at Copenhagen....The first prize in the art exhibit of the Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg, is awarded to William Orpen, of London, and the second to Karl Anderson, of New York (see page 696)....Edward Payson Weston arrives in New York City, having walked across the continent from Los Angeles in 78 days, excluding Sundays.

May 3.—The funeral of Björnstjerne Björnson is held at Christiania, the King and Queen of Norway attending.

May 4.—Colonel Roosevelt is warmly welcomed at Christiania by the King and Queen of Norway....The Royal Geographical Society presents a gold medal to Commander Peary, at London.

May 5.—Theodore Roosevelt delivers an address on international peace before the Nobel Prize Committee at Christiania....The city of Cartago, Costa Rica, is almost totally destroyed by an earthquake, the loss of life amounting to more than 1500....Seventy miners are killed in a mine-explosion near Birmingham, Ala.

May 10.—Ex-President Roosevelt is a guest of the German Emperor at Potsdam.

May 12.—Mr. Roosevelt lectures before the University of Berlin on "The World Movement"....The battleship *Florida,* of 21,800 tons, is launched at the Brooklyn Navy Yard. ....An explosion in the Wellington Coal Mine, near Manchester, England, causes the death of 137 men.

May 14.—The Japanese-British Exposition is opened in London.

May 16.—Ex-President Roosevelt arrives in London....Receivers are appointed in Columbus for the Hocking Valley Railroad.

May 18.—The body of King Edward, lying in State in Westminster Hall, is viewed by hundreds of thousands of people....An explosion of 3000 pounds of dynamite demolishes the barracks of the Rural Guards at Pinar del Rio, Cuba, and kills more than 100 persons.

May 20.—The funeral of King Edward is held with great ceremony in London, ex-President Roosevelt and nine reigning monarchs attending.

OBITUARY

April 21.—Samuel Langhorne Clemens ("Mark Twain"), the author, 74 (see page 702)....Charles Edwin Hurd, the New England editor and author, 76....Simeon Brownell, a noted Abolitionist and Prohibitionist, 82.

April 23.—John B. Alcott, the grass expert, 80.

April 25.—Björnstjerne Björnson, the Norwegian poet, dramatist, and novelist, 77.... Henri Barboux, an eminent French lawyer, 76.

April 26.—Gustav Tietgens, head of the Hamburg-American Steamship Line, 72.

April 27.—Baron Robert Melvil van Lynden, secretary of the permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, 67.

April 28.—Rev. Henry Harris Jessup, D.D., for fifty-three years a Presbyterian missionary in Syria, 78....Gen. Edward P. Alexander, a noted Confederate soldier and writer, 74.

April 29.—Brig.-Gen. Nathan A. M. Dudley, U. S. A., retired, 85.

May 1.—John Q. A. Ward, the sculptor, 79 (see page 694)....Nord Alexis, formerly president of Haiti, 90....Rear-Admiral Philip Hichborn, U. S. N., retired, 71....Gen. J. P. S. Gobin, a former commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 73.

May 2.—John W. Wheeler, a pioneer sewing-machine manufacturer, 77.

May 3.—John L. Beveridge, ex-Governor of Illinois, 86....John H. Converse, president of the Baldwin Locomotive Works, 69....Judge Edward T. Bartlett, of the New York Court of Appeals, 69.

May 4.—Dr. Horace B. Silliman, of New York, contributor of large sums to educational and religious institutions, 84.

May 5.—Dr. George Fisk Comfort, well known as an art critic and educator, 76....Rev. Alexander McLaren, D.D., a prominent English clergyman, 84.

May 6.—King Edward VII. of England, 68 (see page 689)....Rear-Admiral Bowman H. McCalla, U. S. N., retired, 66.

May 7.—Thomas F. Byrnes, formerly chief of police of New York City, 68.

May 8.—Walter C. Kerr, president of Westinghouse, Church, Kerr & Co., 51.

May 10.—Benjamin Cutter, a prominent musical educator and author, 52.

May 13.—Edward B. Garriott, chief forecaster of the Weather Bureau, 57.

May 14.—Sir William Huggins, the noted English astronomer, 86.

May 15.—James W. Van Cleave, ex-president of the Manufacturers' Association and a leader in the fight against boycotts, 60.

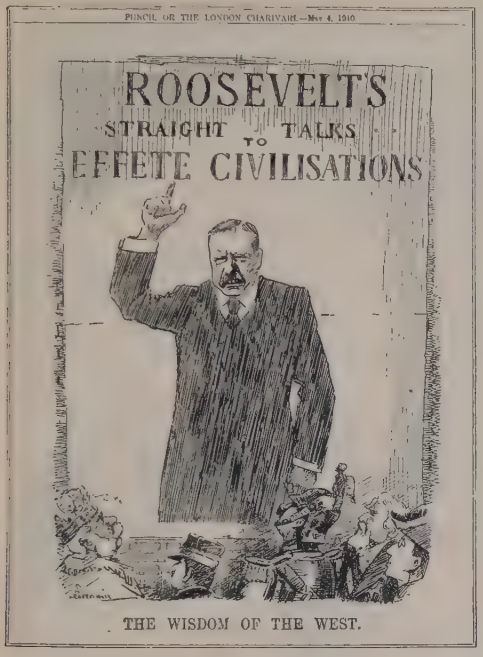
May 16.—Rev. Thomas W. Silloway, a prominent architect, 81....George Aitchison, R. A., the English architect.

May 18.—John A. Kasson, formerly United States minister to Austria and to Germany, 88. ....Franz Skarbina, the German painter, 61.... Isaac Chauncey Wyman, generous donor to Princeton University, 82.

May 19.—Michael Brinkman, M.D., an expert in hydrotherapy, 83.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH

I.—ROOSEVELT IN FOREIGN CARICATURE



MR. ROOSEVELT LECTURING EUROPE

(London *Punch* pictures the American ex-President as "instructing" the crowned heads of Europe)

(The *Floh*, Vienna's best known cartoon weekly in its "Roosevelt edition" pictures Uncle Sam announcing that our "most glorious Presidents" have been Washington, Monroe, Lincoln, McKinley, and Roosevelt)

PRESIDENT TAFT AND THE COMET

(*Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam) believes that Mr. Taft regards Mr. Roosevelt with much the same apprehensions as those with which the world last month regarded Halley's comet)

BACK TO EUROPE WITH HIS AFRICAN SPOIL

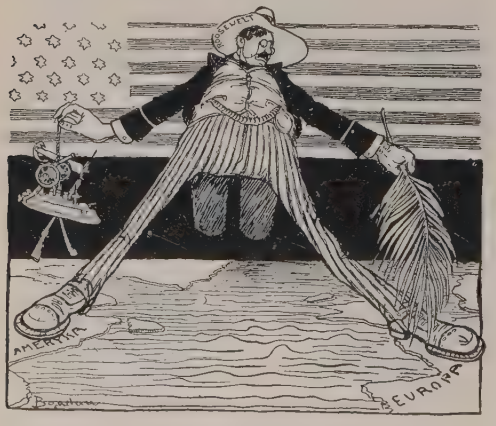
(The view of *Kladderadatsch*, Berlin)

THE EX-PRESIDENT'S MODESTY

"Do not forget, gentlemen, that I am only a plain American citizen"

From *Ulk* (Berlin)

Continental Europe has not always regarded Mr. Roosevelt as being diplomatic in public utterance. *Kladderadatsch*, however, has discovered that the ex-President can emphasize his belief in assertive democracy, while, at the same time, he counsels rendering "unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's,"—in a monarchy. The cartoon reproduced in the proceeding column records this discovery.



WAR AND PEACE IN HIS HANDS,—A POLISH VIEW

From *Mucha* (Warsaw)

„Mylords und Gentlemen! Erstens hat dieser Bürger das stolze Selbstbewußtsein zu zeigen, das ihm sein auf die Volksvertretung gestütztes persönliches Recht verleiht, dann aber auch jene Hingabe zu beweisen, deren nur ein echt königstreues Gemüt fähig ist!

Mannhaft muß er selbst dem Throne gegenüber mit Donnerworten seine individuelle Meinung vertreten —

andererseits muß ihn aber auch jenes warme Gefühl für das angestammte Herrscherhaus beseelen, das eine Folgeerscheinung der Demut vor den gottgewollten Abhängigkeiten darstellt.

Als Bürger eines konstitutionellen Staates soll er hoch erhaben über dem kleinlichen Verlangen nach höherer Anerkennung stehn —

doch soll er trotzdem ein Plätzchen auf seinem, zum anderen Teil monarchisch gesinnten Herzen freihalten, wo ein Kranz beglückender Ehrenzeichen und Dekorationen jederzeit Raum findet! m. br.

ROOSEVELT'S BERLIN ADDRESS

A German humorous view of Colonel Roosevelt making his address at the University of Berlin, on May 12.

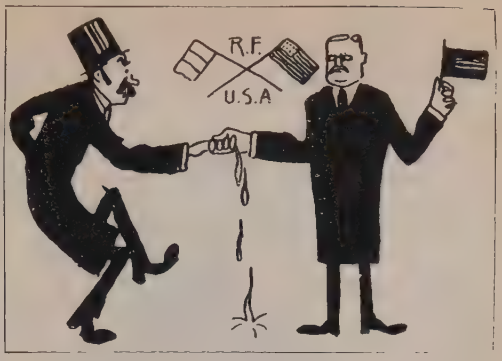
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

NOT WORRYING OVER THE ROME INCIDENT

ROOSEVELT: "I have been in Rome and have not seen the Pope"

From *Floh* (Vienna)

ROOSEVELT AS THE "WILD HUNTER" IN THE ROYAL GERMAN PALACE.—From *Ulk* (Berlin)



THE FRENCHMAN GETS A STRENUOUS SHAKE!

ROOSEVELT (shaking hands vigorously with M. Briand, to the latter's discomfort): "In democracies, my dear Briand, it is necessary to be energetic"

From *Rire* (Paris)

TELLING HUNTER'S TALES IN THE WIGWAM ON THE SPREE

Roosevelt to Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg: "Picture my predicament, my dear Bethmann-Hollweg; on my right charged an alligator, on my left a lion, over me hovered a vulture, and under me crawled a rattlesnake,—how do you think I saved myself? By good luck I had with me a newspaper with your election franchise proposal. I read it aloud, and the wild beasts promptly turned tail and fled in a panic. I was saved!"

From *Jugend* (Munich)

"EMPHASIZING THE OBVIOUS" IN PARIS

MR. ROOSEVELT (addressing the Sorbonne): "Educated folk know more than ignoramuses; peace is less bloody than war; rich men are not poor; race suicide is one of the causes of decline in population, etc."

From *Rire* (Paris)

WILL THIS BE THE CROWNING TRIUMPH?

The cartoonist of *Fischietto,* an illustrated weekly published in Turin, is of opinion that an appropriate and up-to-date way for Colonel Roosevelt to return to the United States would be by means of an aeroplane.

THE HEARTY RECEPTION IN HOLLAND

ROOSEVELT: "All this seems familiar to me."
THE DUTCH NATION: "It is the home of your ancestors. You are thrice welcome."

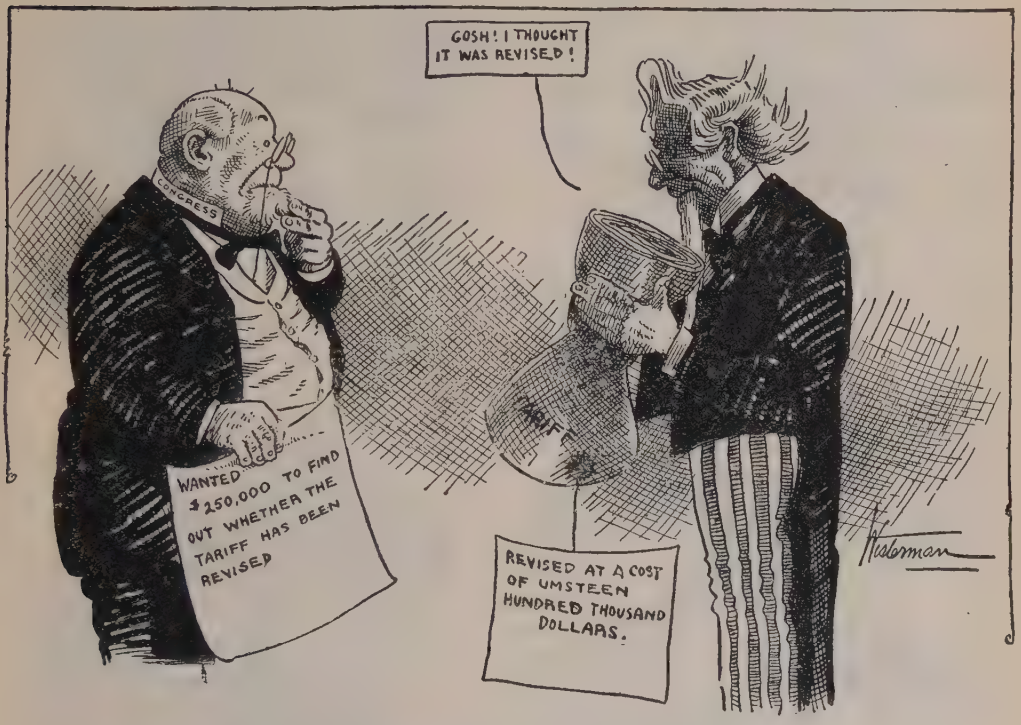
From *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)

In Wien.
In Vienna.
Gentlemen, your city is so beautiful, that I have decided not to run anymore for President, but rather accept the position as Mayor of your city.

MR. ROOSEVELT'S ADMIRATION FOR VIENNA

(According to *Floh,* Mr. Roosevelt was so charmed with Vienna that he has decided to forego future American honors and accept the position of Mayor of the Austrian capital)

II.—SOME CARTOONS ON AMERICAN TOPICS


GOSH! I THOUGHT IT WAS REVISED!
CONGRESS
WANTED $250,000 TO FIND OUT WHETHER THE TARIFF HAS BEEN REVISED
TARIFF
REVISED AT A COST OF UMSTEEN HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS.
Nisbet

(Referring to the measure in Congress to provide for the payment of a board of tariff experts)
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)

The tariff is still a prominent subject for discussion in political circles, and this and with other Congressional matters, furnish the cartoonists with topics for many of their cartoons.

ALDRICH: "SH-H-H-H! DON'T DISTURB THE TARIFF!"
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

THE ONE DISCORDANT NOTE,—TARIFF
From the *Evening News* (Newark)

ANOTHER ELIZA CROSSING THE ICE

(President Taft hurrying his legislative program before the adjournment of Congress overtakes him)

From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

NO BUTTER YET!

(Referring to the incomplete state of federal legislation)

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)

HOLD ON,—FINISH YOUR JOB!

(The Congressman is anxious to get home to repair his political fences)

From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

THE CONGRESSMAN AS LEGISLATOR AND BASEBALL ENTHUSIAST

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)

WHO DOES YO WISH TO SEE SIR?
IM HOME TO STAY
SEEMS TO ME I'VE SEEN HIM SOMEWHERE BEFORE
I'VE LIVED IN WASHINGTON FOR YEARS AND I CAN'T RECALL HIM
THE WHITE HOUSE

A STRANGER IN A STRANGE LAND

From the *Jersey Journal* (Jersey City)

THE RAILROAD BILL BABY DAUBED UP WITH "INDEPENDENT" INK

PRESIDENT TAFT: "Great Scott! Do you call that taking care of my child?"

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)

IOWA ALLEY

(Where Unk Joe and Nels Aldrich fear to tread lest they meet Cummins and Dolliver)

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)

ACCORDING TO TAFT

(Referring to some complimentary remarks President Taft made about Secretary Knox in a recent speech)

From the *World* (New York)

MOTHER LOVE

From the *Traveler* (Boston)

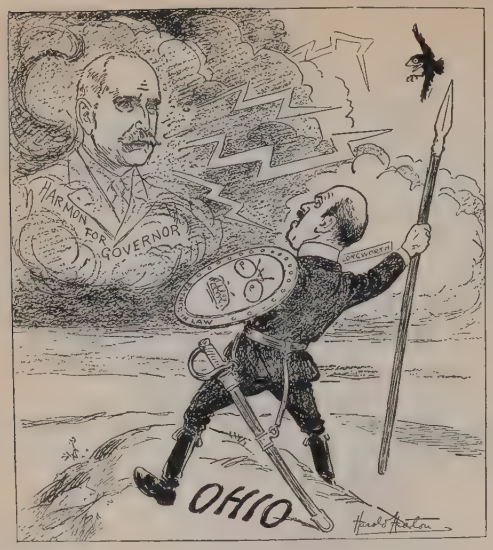
REGRET

(Apropos of the announcement of Senator Aldrich's retirement at the end of his term)

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

"WHO IS THE HEAD OF THE DEMOCRATIC FAMILY, BRYAN, HARMON, OR GAYNOR?"

From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

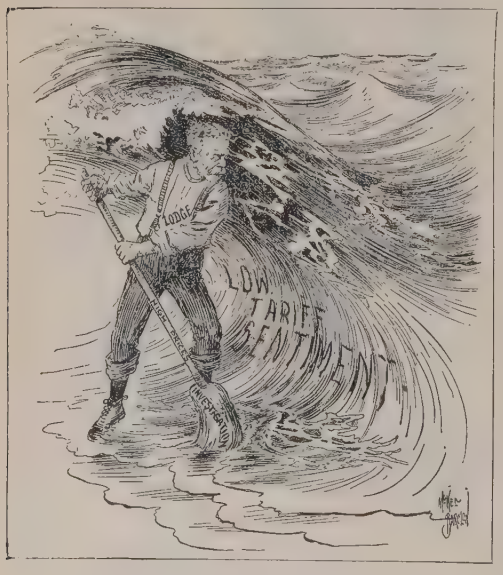


WILL AJAX DEFY THE LIGHTNING?
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

There seems to be little doubt that Governor Harmon will run for another term in Ohio this coming fall, but exactly who the Republican candidate will be is not so clear at present. Representative Longworth is being prominently mentioned as the man, although the question seems to be, will he make the race in view of Governor Harmon's strength and ponularity. Senator Lodge, using his investigation into the cost of living as a broom, is endeavoring to sweep back the tide of low-tariff sentiment.

WOULD TAFT SWAP PLACES WITH HUGHES?
"Of all sad words of tongue or pen,
The saddest are these, 'It might have been.'"
From the *Herald* (Boston)

Senator Burrows, of Michigan, is evidently having a little trouble with his State political automobile and last month called in the expert assistance of Vice-President Sherman, who contributed a speech or two.



MR. PARTINGTON (SENATOR LODGE) SWEEPING BACK THE TIDE OF LOW TARIFF SENTIMENT
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

THERE'S TROUBLE IN KALAMAZOO
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

CHERUBS!

(Referring to the measures being taken at Albany for a legislative investigation)

From the *World* (New York)

SENATORIAL BAG-PUNCHING

Senator La Follette sets the spring style in politics.

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)

THE RENUNCIATION!

From the *Times-Star* (Cincinnati)

DISSENSION UNDER THE DOME

It's not the *next* Congress but the present one that Uncle Sam is worrying about!

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

In the cartoons on this page various political topics are touched on, from the conditions in Congress to the legislative situation at Albany. Some attention is also paid to the present position of the Republican party and Mr. Bryan's renunciation of the Presidential nomination for 1912.

THE REPUBLICAN ELEPHANT APPREHENSIVE

The tide of insurgency and Democratic sentiment continues to rise.

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

KING GEORGE SUCCEEDS KING EDWARD

BY W. T. STEAD

I.—CHARACTER SKETCH OF THE NEW KING

WHEN I came away from my first long talk with the Prince who on May 9 was formally proclaimed King George the Fifth, I had the impression that I had been face to face with a reincarnation of George III. It was not bluff old Farmer George of Windsor this time. But it was a young, brusque Sailor George, in whom reappeared many of the characteristics of his namesake.

The resemblance did not extend to the outward embodiment of the Georgian soul. But there also was a haunting suggestion of another sovereign. The then Duke of York and the present Emperor of Russia were as like as two peas in a pod. Height, complexion, color of hair, and of eyes, were almost the same. The two cousins might as easily have been mistaken for each other as were the Dromios of Ephesus and Syracuse.

So I came away from the interview which had been brought about in order that we might discuss the program of the first Hague Conference with the curious impression that our future sovereign had the mind of George the Third in the body of Nicholas the Second, —a somewhat bizarre combination, and one that was not altogether reassuring.

The young man who was then the Duke of York became in due course Prince of Wales, and just before midnight on May 6 succeeded to the throne. Henceforth he is no more Prince George or the Duke of York, or the Prince of Wales. King George he is, and King George he will now remain till the end of the chapter. What kind of a king will he be? That is the question of questions, on the answer to which much will hang of the first importance for the future of the empire and the destinies of the human race.

It is all mere guessing. No one ever can deduce from the life and conversation of a prince what a king will be. Prince Hal is the most familiar case in point. But the late King was a hardly less notable instance of the transformation that is sometimes effected by accession to the throne. George the Fifth may be as unlike the late Prince of Wales as he will certainly be unlike the larky midshipman, whose practical jokes in the old Queen's time were at least up to the high average of middies since the days of Midshipman Easy. But sufficient is known of his temperament and his character to enable us to form a rough conception of how he is likely to frame as a sovereign.

One negative may safely be hazarded. It seems beyond the bounds of human probability that he will ever be as popular a sovereign as his father. He does not seem to have it in him. He is in many respects a better man, but he will never be so universally beloved. And that from no faults of his own. Not once in a blue moon is a man born to the purple who possesses in exact proportions all the essential elements which go to the make-up of a popular king. Edward VII. was such a man. He had an absolute genius for winning the affections of the nation. He offended the prejudices of some; he disregarded the wishes of others; but neither the one nor the other bore him any grudge. His geniality, his bonhomie, his good-heartedness, and, above all, the fact of his being an intensely human creature, endeared him to all. It is a disadvantage to George to have to follow a monarch so far beyond a compeer in certain instinctive aptitudes, which, unless they are given to a man in his cradle by the good fairies, he can never acquire by any labor of his own.

A MAN WITH IDEAS OF HIS OWN

To this negative may be added with equal confidence a positive prediction. Whatever else George the Fifth may be, he will not be a constitutional king of the type which appears to commend itself to some popular politicians, whose ideal would seem to be that of a penny-in-the-slot kind of an automaton wound up every morning by his ministers, without initiative, conscience, or judgment of his own. It is written in Blackstone that the King of England can do no wrong, and is even incapable of thinking a wrong thought.

KING GEORGE V.

(Who, in his forty-fifth year, succeeds his father, Edward VII., as King of Great Britain and Ireland)

That, of course, must be interpreted with the rider,—in his official capacity as sovereign, for most of our kings have compounded for their official impeccability in word and in thoughts by considerable license of thoughts and action in their private capacity. What is certain is that our new monarch has not come to the throne with his mind as an immaculate sheet of white paper upon which his advisers may write what they please. When his Most Gracious Majesty is officially advised by his constitutional advisers that the welfare of the state demands that he should take any specific action, he will, of course, as in duty bound, act upon their advice. Walter Bagehot once said that it was a king's constitutional duty to sign his own death warrant if it were sent up to him by the vote of the Lords and Commons. But before King George acted upon the advice of any one set of ministers which he thought detrimental to the welfare of his realm he would certainly do his utmost to see whether it was not possible to furnish himself with another set of advisers with whose ideas he would be more in accord. For the great and wonderful thing about the new King is that he is a man who has ideas of his own,—political ideas of his own,—and, what is perhaps more unprecedented still, we all know what these ideas are.

THE ROYAL CHILDREN OF ENGLAND

[The six children of the new King of England, George V., and Queen Mary: The eldest son, Edward Albert, Prince of Wales (16), stands next to his sister, Princess Victoria Alexandra (13). The boy at the extreme left of the picture is Prince Henry William (10). Next him, seated, is Prince Albert Frederick (15). At the right is Prince George Edward (8), while the youngest, seated below his sister, is Prince John Charles (5)]

QUEEN MARY OF ENGLAND

The qualities of judicious reserve, of calculated silence, are not cultivated in the middies' mess nor even on the quarter-deck of a man-of-war. Until the King was nearly thirty years of age he had no expectation that he would ever be called to the throne. So it was natural that he grew up more of a bluff, breezy sailor, accustomed to speak out his thought and air his opinions with a freedom calculated to make Polonius shudder.

A KING WHO KNOWS THE COLONIES

The natural influence of his seafaring life was strengthened by his long sojourn outside the narrow limits of these islands. "What do they know of England who only England know?" and what do they know of the reserve and caution and conventional reticence of England's court who have spent most of their lives on the high seas or in the colonies? I began by saying that the Duke of York reminded me of a sailor George III. I qualify that by saying that in him the sailor is blended with the colonial. George III. never understood the colonies and he lost America. George V. does understand the colonies, and it may not altogether make it easier for him to hold the confidence of the old-fashioned fogeydom that reigns supreme in court and cabinet in the old land.

FOND OF POLITICS

I have said that we all know what his ideas are. I should have said, What his ideas were. For the ideas of a king often differ from those of the Prince of Wales. But as Prince of Wales he never made any secret of his ideas. He was a keen politician and very fond of talking politics. He was frequently to be found in the gallery of the House of Commons and in his seat in the House of Lords, and at the dinner-table and in the smoking-room he was never loth to give his companions a piece of his mind upon the questions of the day.

What those ideas were I will not put on

record here. No obstacle should be put in the way of many of them being consigned to eternal oblivion. And, moreover, it is impossible to state the views of the Prince of Wales upon party questions now pending without in some way appearing to use the King's name with a view to affect the course of legislation. The following resolution, adopted by the House of Commons on December 17, 1783, may be recalled with advantage just now:

Resolved, That it is now necessary to declare that to report any opinion or pretended opinion of his Majesty upon any bill or other proceeding depending in either House of Parliament with a view to influence the votes of members is a high crime and misdemeanor, derogatory to the honor of the crown, a breach of the fundamental privileges of Parliament, and subversive of the Constitution.

After the foregoing very guarded reference to the late political opinions of the late Prince of Wales, I confine myself to what is a public record. The King has been reared in the first flush of the rise of colonial imperialism. As he and his brother told us in their journals during the cruise of the *Bacchante,* their lads' hearts vibrated in passionate sympathy in the sonorous verse of Tennyson when he repudiated with scorn the notion that Britain was a sinking land, "some third-rate isle half lost among her seas." His mind ever dwells upon

Our ocean-empire with her boundless homes,
For ever broadening England and her throne
In one vast Orient.

MOST WIDELY TRAVELED OF SOVEREIGNS

When the King speaks of these things he speaks of what he has seen with his own eyes and touched with his own hands. He is the most widely traveled sovereign in the world. And whenever he has come back from his journeyings among our kinsfolk overseas, he has brought home deep and ever deeper impressions of their loyalty to the crown and of attachment to the old country. And as he told us at the Guildhall in 1901, "with this loyalty were unmistakable evidences of the consciousness of strength of a true and living membership in the empire and of the power and readiness to share the burden and responsibility of that membership." He is not ashamed of it. On the contrary, he excels in it. And being a navy man to his fingertips he knows that the British Empire floats upon the British fleet, and if the new King be not a two-keels-to-one man I should be very much mistaken.

He is a keen observer, a voluminous writer, an eloquent and impressive speaker. The phrase "Wake up, John Bull," was none of his invention. But when he borrowed it he used it with admirable effect in his speech in the City. He has shown much sound sense in daring to utter forgotten truisms in the ears of those to whom they sound like damnable heresies. When he was at the Cape during the war he said a word for peace and mutual forbearance. When he was in India he rebuked the besetting sin of the Anglo-Indians by reminding them that "the task of governing India will be made easier if we, on our part, infuse into it a wider element of sympathy."

IMPULSIVE AT TIMES

The chief danger of the King will be in his qualities rather than in his defects. He is conscientious. He takes himself very seriously. He works hard, reads much, and is very set in his own opinions. He knows that most of the people who swagger on the foretop of the state have never seen nine-tenths of the empire which they attempt to rule. He is not swell-headed, but he is impulsive, somewhat self-opinionated, and rather brusque in his mode of speech, and it is not very difficult to foresee that there will be considerable risk of considerable smashing of the constitutional crockery unless George the Fifth learns betimes that a king has to put a guard upon his lips. Free and easy declarations in favor of one or the other set of party political questions are out of place in the mouth of a king.

THOROUGHLY DOMESTICATED

His Majesty is one of the most abstemious of men. That may not be regarded by some as a merit in the King. Englishmen rather like a man who can enjoy a good square meal without fearing any penalties in the shape of indigestion. And from of old our people, before teetotalism grew, rather despised a man who could not take his liquor like a gentleman. But the King can do neither. He is no valiant trencherman, as his father was; neither can his constitution allow him to indulge in strong drink. I have neither dined nor lunched at his table, but those who have declare that they never saw a man so sparing in his liquor. Half a glass of light wine is often all that he dare take. This is not from principle but from necessity. The King has got a good conscience but a bad stomach, and the slightest indiscretion in either food or drink carries with it a severe

penalty. For two years past he has forsworn all alcohol and confines his drinking to that very innocent beverage known as ginger ale.

The fact is that King George approximates much more to the ethical ideal of the English middle classes than any man who has ever held sway in England since the days of Oliver Cromwell. He resembles the Czar of Russia,—his favorite cousin,—in being passionately domesticated. He is a model *père de famille*. He dislikes fuss and feathers and ceremonial and all the flim-flam of courts in which the soul of King Edward delighted. He has got a good wife, and he knows it. He is simply devoted to his children. His one delight is to get home and spend a quiet evening with his wife and weans. He hates dining out. He does not play much at cards, and never for money. He hates corruption, and rumor credits him with cherishing designs against the innumerable takers of commission who batten on the tradesmen who supply his palace, which if carried out will raise old Harry in certain quarters. He is a studious man, reading newspapers and Blue Books with avidity. He owns no racehorses. He plays well at golf, and when he goes out shooting his hand is steady and his aim is true. He is said to be the second best shot in Great Britain, the Marquis of Ripon being the first. To be in bed at half-past ten and to be up and about at half-past six has been his ambition as a prince, for habits of early rising inculcated in the navy are apt to be present in later life.

Of many other sides of the character of our new sovereign I have not left myself space to speak. I have said enough to indicate that whatever George V. may be on the throne, he is not likely to be a cipher. He will be no *roi fainéant*, but he will be a king, aye, every inch a king. He is no mere youth. He is forty-four, in the very prime and heyday of life. He has spent many years in familiarizing himself with the problems of government in every part of the empire. He succeeds to the throne when all parties recognize the need of the exercise of the influence of a royal peacemaker in order to avert any necessity for the use of the royal prerogative. Mr. Balfour is not alone in recognizing that the influence of the monarch has increased and is certain to increase. The King is ambitious, and he has a high sense of his duty

THE ENGLISH ROYAL FAMILY

to the nation and the responsibilities of his position. It remains to be seen how this new hand at the helm will steer the ship of state through the gathering storms. But, as Archbishop Tait reminded the lad on his confirmation, "a perfectly level plain calls for little engineering; a sunny voyage through a summer sea does not test the mettle of a sailor's seamanship, or lay up for him a store of useful experience."

The King need not fear but that he will have plenty of opportunities to call for his engineering, and for tests of the mettle of his seamanship.

I have not more than a line in which to say, perhaps, the most important thing in this article, that it is a good thing for the nation in this crisis that our new King has a good wife, whose tact and judgment and inborn instinct will stand him in good stead in every hour of need. The Queen, better known as Princess May, is the first English Queen we have had for centuries who is an English woman. It is, perhaps, the fact which is of happiest augury for the new reign.

THREE GENERATIONS OF BRITISH ROYALTY

(King George V., his father, the late King Edward VII., and his son, Edward Albert, the present Prince of Wales)

II.—EDWARD VII. AS MAN AND KING

"HARK, do you not hear it?"

"Hear what?" "The tolling of the passing bell!" I opened my window and listened. It was past midnight. The night was clear and a great hush overhung the city. Presently the silence was broken by the rush of motor cars, driving eastward past the shadow of the gray towers of St. John's, Westminster. The watchers at the Palace were returning home from the last vigil. The noise of the motors drowned for a moment all other sounds. The clock overhead chimed the half hour. Then far away from the eastward, swinging low and bodeful like a great sob, the wind brought across the city, again and yet again, in sad succession, the dull insistent note of the bell of St. Paul's, that metallic tongue of the Angel of Death set apart from generation to generation to proclaim the death of kings.

All was over. The King was dead!

Only nine years ago the same bell, announcing the death of Queen Victoria, heralded the arrival on the scene of the sovereign who, less than half a mile away had been so suddenly summoned from this world of shadows into the reality beyond. Only nine years, nine crowded years of life that never seemed to lose its zest, and now the end. Yet perhaps he was happy even in the moment of his passing. For he has at least been taken away from the trouble to come in this year of crisis and of storm. What a mockery it seems to-day to read all speculations as to "The Opportunity of the King"; and yet what pathos lies in the loyal affectionate confidence all his subjects reposed in him, and with what wistful thoughts they turned to him as to a father who would do his best to compose the troubles of the family. And all this fierce polemic over the prerogative of the King! Another monarch has exerted a still more supreme prerogative, and all voices are hushed in the presence of Death.

King Edward was the first good king we have had since William of Orange. George the Third was a good man, but a bad king. The others were neither good men nor good kings. It is now nine years since Edward ascended the throne, and during these nine years he has never made a mistake. He has not merely fulfilled the highest expectations of his friends, he has exceeded them all round. Thirty years ago, when many were in doubt as to how the then Prince of Wales would comport himself on the throne, Lord Knollys, who knew him more intimately than all other men, told me "You will see that when he succeeds to the throne he will make a good king." Many doubted. But not even Lord Knollys ventured to hope that Kind Edward's reign would close amid such world-wide tributes of universal admiration and esteem. As a constitutional monarch his conduct has been beyond reproach. He has worked with both parties and has won the confidence of all his advisers. If he was not quite so insistent as his royal mother in counseling her counselors he was never unmindful of the fact that the modern monarchy can regain in influence what it has lost in authority. A monarch who had won universal praise by acting as a peacemaker abroad could not be, and as a matter of fact was by no means insensible of his duty to act as a peacemaker at home. That he should have been snatched away on the eve of the conflict which we all looked fondly to him to compose is a national calamity, unless indeed the still, cold lips of Death should plead still more eloquently than the King could ever have done in life against the madness of extremes and the sacrifice of national interests to party triumph. It may be so; it will be so,—

> If our slowly grown
> And crowned republic's crowning common sense,
> That saved her many times, fail not.

If so, King Edward may have left us a legacy in his death greater than all the benefactions of his life.

Yes, his benefactions have been great and manifold. It has been the crowning glory of King Edward to demonstrate to the world that the most constitutional of all monarchs can yet be the most useful of all diplomatists. Notwithstanding the fact that the full development of his peacemaking activity was marred by the unfortunate differences, purely personal and domestic, which for some years divided him from the Kaiser, the King has done astonishingly well in carrying out the foreign policy of a series of *ententes* all round which was approved by all his ministers without distinction of parties.

It was once said by a shrewd observer that, while Edward VII. was a king among

statesmen at home, when he was abroad he traveled as a statesman among kings. It was a happy phrase which expressed, not inaptly, the difference between the rôle of the King within and without the empire. He was ever a constitutional king, holding himself severely aloof from the clash of faction and the strife of parties. But abroad he was not limited in his activities by the necessity of avoiding party politics; he was the representative of the nation over which he ruled, and he was addressed as such by all those with whom he spoke. In a very short space of time he acquired a reputation as a diplomatist that was as unique as it was unprecedented. He became almost a king of miracle, who wielded a magic scepter, which enabled him to achieve results in foreign policy which would have been impossible to any one else. Those who loved him on the Continent, and he was almost as popular in France as in his own country, magnified his successes from sheer liking, but they were magnified still more by those who feared him. There were many men in Germany who really believed that King Edward was a kind of black magician who spent all his time in Windsor Castle in casting malignant spells which would encircle the Fatherland in an iron band! He was probably playing bridge.

Edward VII. was a personality more popular with the masses than any sovereign since the days of Elizabeth. The people revered his mother more. But she was more of a tutelary deity than a creature of flesh and blood. She sympathized with the sorrows and losses of her subjects as a kind of Mater Dolorosa. Her son was cast in an altogether different mold. He was a man among men, genial, extremely kind-hearted, shrewd, tactful, fond of sport, and with a keen zest for all the common pleasures in which common men find a common ground of sympathy. If he allowed this *joie de vivre* to carry him further in some directions than was right, these errors were hidden from the eyes of the multitude by a scrupulous regard for the conventions, both social and ecclesiastical. There was no hypocrisy in this, nor cant. The King is reported to have asked eagerly within six hours of his passing over, whether his horse "Witch of the Air," out of "Robert le Diable," had won the two-year-old plate at Kempton, and to have expressed all a schoolboy's delight on hearing of his success. He certainly was not a plaster saint, nor an austere ascetic, but he was the same man who directed Lord Knollys to reply to my inquiry as to which hymn had helped him most as follows: "The Prince of Wales directs me to mention that among serious hymns he thinks there is none more touching nor one that goes more truly to the heart than No. 7 on your list,—'Nearer, My God, to Thee.'" That was written in 1895. The last stanza of that hymn of devout aspiration after closer communion with the infinite and all loving heart of God, although it may seem somewhat incongruous to those who knew only the outside of the King's character, is as follows:

Or if on joyful wing,
Cleaving the sky,
Sun, moon, and stars forgot,
Upward I fly.
Still, still my song shall be,
Nearer, my God, to Thee,
Nearer to Thee!

"There is none more touching, nor one that goes more truly to the heart!"

Of the King's personal character much has been said,—some of which perhaps might have been left unsaid. But not even the worst of his few detractors have denied him an almost excessive kindliness of disposition. It was indeed one of his faults; he was too good-hearted. In this he somewhat resembled Charles the Second, who on his death-bed did not forget to beg that those who came after him would not let "pretty Nelly starve." There was a fine chivalry about the man, and a rare constancy of affection towards a few which contrasted very markedly with the variability of his mood in relation to others. He was, as the man in the street says, emphatically a good sportsman, so good that he faced one of the few scandals of his life by insisting upon exposing a fellow guest at Tranby Croft who had been caught cheating at cards. But that which endeared him to the great masses of men has always been his vitality, the keen zest he took in the occurrences of every day. If he did not exactly rejoice evermore in the sense of the apostolic precept, he was never moody, never a grumbler, never a shirker. He enjoyed all the things of this world, pressed life's brimming beaker to his lips, and unlike many he did not drain it dry. Nor had its generous contents ever lost their savor for him. He was nearly three-score years and ten but in some things he had the heart of a schoolboy beneath the armor of the shrewd and somewhat cynical man of the world.

SATURDAY, MAY 7, 1910.

CHINA'S FIRST WORLD'S FAIR

NANKING, the old capital city of the Chinese Ming dynasty, on the Yangtsze River, is this summer inviting the nations to the unique spectacle of a Chinese world's fair. The exposition is to open on June 1 and remain open for six months. This first "White City" in China will be a creditable imitation, though on a smaller scale, of the well-known expositions of Europe and America. Nanking has a larger inclosed area than even Peking, the walled circumference being twenty-five miles.

DIRECTOR-GENERAL H. E. CHIN CHE

(Who, in company with Mr. N. C. Huang, the landscape gardener of the fair, has visited and studied a number of American expositions)

The exposition will occupy a space of 500 by 400 yards, and will be situated about half way between the outer wall and the center of the city, near the Sanpailo station of the Nanking City Railroad. The entire enterprise has been generously conceived on modern lines, both in regard to architectural design and landscape features. The grounds have been judiciously laid out, with broad roads and with due consideration for the scenic effect to be obtained by leaving some of the natural growth, especially the bamboo groves, as a background for the buildings. The well-known landscape features of modern Western expositions have been copied, with their attractive lawns, flower beds, and paths, while numerous unsightly ponds of malarial proclivities have been converted into ornamental lagoons. With a single exception, the chief buildings are of one story, and on this account have not furnished the scope for architectural display to be secured in larger structures of this character; but no little pains have been spent on the design and construction of each individual building, and on its suitable position as related to the general scheme of the exposition. Ample pleasure grounds are found outside the exhibition proper, and there is a race-course having a circuit of one mile.

The exhibits cover the widest possible range, and include all kinds of Chinese and foreign products, manufactures, and machinery, together with a large variety of exhibits relating to education, the liberal arts, and the various philanthropic and missionary enterprises in China.

The main entrance to the exposition, with its ornamental arch of characteristic Chinese design, is flanked on either side by the educational and industrial arts buildings. A short distance from this is a clock tower of brick, for observation purposes. Nearby is also a large public assembly hall, in which there will be lectures throughout the period of the exposition, on topics of current interest, by Chinese scholars, as well as by foreigners. The Administration Building is not far from the entrance, as is also the Gallery of Fine Arts, one of the most conspicuous features of the entire exposition.

There are also the usual buildings devoted to agriculture, foreign exhibits, machinery, transportation, fisheries, industrial arts, etc. Fifteen of the Chinese provinces have erected pavilions at the exposition. Previously to the opening of the exposition a number of small exhibits, before being taken to Nanking, were displayed in various cities, for the purpose of arousing interest in the exposition.

ORNAMENTAL ARCH OF CHARACTERISTIC CHINESE DESIGN
(Standing in front of the main entrance to the Nanking Exposition)

Adequate provision has been made for entertaining visitors, there being also a "foreign restaurant," while on the road leading from the city to the exposition grounds are two large hotels for foreign visitors. In addition to the assembly hall, already mentioned, a large provincial assembly hall, outside the exhibition inclosure, erected at a cost of $80,000, is to be used for educational meetings and lectures. To give the exposition the last touch of Western completeness there will be the inevitable "Midway," where the professional amusement caterers will hold forth, with the music and the glamour of a variety of alluring "shows."

Fortunately there exists in Nanking itself a very friendly feeling not only between the officials and missionaries but between Chinese and foreigners in general. For the further development of this desirable spirit a "Christian Committee" of leading missionaries has been formed to supervise the medical and philanthropic exhibits. This committee will also have charge of social rooms, tea rooms, and similar places of entertainment for foreign guests and native Christians. These social centers are expected to have a favorable influence in promoting harmonious relations between the peoples of the East and the West, to the mutual appreciation of the best qualities of each.

It is true that the State Department at Washington received during the month of May disquieting rumors of an anti-foreign and anti-dynastic nature. Such feeling of this kind as exists is attributed to a factional movement of the Boxer type, and is not shared by the Chinese at Nanking in general. The consular representatives of the foreign governments promptly called on the Viceroy of the province to take steps for the suppression of the anti-foreign sentiment, and the American Minister, Mr. Calhoun, suggested the sending of a warship to Nanking. With the opening of the exposition on the first of June, however, it is hoped that there will be nothing to mar a spirit of complete cordiality between all classes of Chinese citizens and foreigners in this vicinity.

The Shanghai and Nanking Railway has made special arrangements for transporting visitors to the exposition, and the trip on this excellently managed road,—which is one of the best railways east of Suez,—will add not a little to the pleasure of a visit to Nanking.

The incentive for the exposition came from Tu Fang, the progressive Viceroy, the province in which Nanking is located, who, with Yuan Shih Ki and Tang Shao Yi, have been retired by the Peking authorities for the present. The buildings were designed by Messrs. Atkinson & Dallas, while the landscape features are the work of Mr. N. C. Huang, who in company with the Director-General of the Nanking Exposition, Mr. H. E. Chin Che, has visited a number of American expositions.

THE FINE ARTS BUILDING
(One of the principal structures of the Exposition)

THE AGRICULTURAL BUILDING, WITH ITS ATTRACTIVE LOGGIA AND CORNER PAGODAS

A delegation of some fifty American merchants from the Pacific Coast will visit the exposition under the auspices of the Chinese Chambers of Commerce of Shanghai and other Chinese coast cities. This party plans to sail on the *Korea* from San Francisco August 23. Tourists will also visit the exposition in great numbers, as the trip from Shanghai can be made in seven hours by train, or in a comfortable journey of twenty-four hours by river steamer.

INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS

It would be difficult to estimate fully the beneficial effects of this Nanking exposition in its international aspects. Relations at present between Chinese and foreigners are not as harmonious as they might be, owing to the "Sovereign Rights" recovery movement, and the birth of the nationalistic spirit, especially among the student class. But only the superficial observer will lay much stress on these transitory phases. The education of hundreds of Chinese students in America and Europe, with their constantly increasing numbers, and such significant enterprises as this Nanking exposition, are more vitally related to permanent things. They are among the real factors in the healthy development of international relations, and are a promise of a mutual understanding and a cordial co-operation between China and the Western nations that will result in substantial advantage to both.

THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING

(In which are located the executive offices of the Exposition)

WARD, THE AMERICAN SCULPTOR

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT

IF the late J. Q. A. Ward was not a man of great originality, if he never marched in the van of modern ideas, he was at least in touch with them, and he availed himself more than once of the opportunities of many new phases of art activity that had received European indorsement in recent years.

The "Beecher" (1891) monument, in Brooklyn, was an example of his adaptability. The site chosen was a splendid one,—a small park in front of Borough Hall,—and he saw that here was an opportunity for a decorative group. So in addition to placing a portrait statue of Beecher upon a pedestal, he did what many French sculptors have done of recent years, he placed some life-sized bronze figures against the granite base. On one side a negro woman reaches up and places a wreath or branch at the orator's feet, as does a little girl on the other side, and seated beside her is a little boy. That these figures are too realistic and not quite yielding enough in their poses will, we think, not be denied, but the general effect of the whole monument is certainly rendered more picturesque by their presence than it would have been were it just a single figure.

THE STATUE OF GENERAL HANCOCK
(To be erected at the entrance to Fairmount Park, Philadelphia)

In his "Garfield" (1887) monument, in Washington, he also used emblematic figures on the pedestal. Indeed, in these figures of the "Warrior," the "Statesman," and the "Student" Ward gave evidence of a scholarly judgment as regards proper adjustment of masses and an ability to model the human form that is not always found in his other works.

Another case in which Ward showed his willingness to vie with the younger men in their attempting new things (for this country),—even to the extent of competing with the very greatest achievement of Greek art,—was his undertaking of the large "Pediment of the Stock Exchange," New York. This was a forcible piece of work, though the effect of it to-day in its soiled condition, as seen from the narrow street below, is not an imposing one.

Ward's "General Thomas" is thought by many to be his best work. Saint-Gaudens is reported as so estimating it. It is a dignified figure of a soldier on horseback, and makes a striking silhouette against the sky.

At the time of his death Ward had under completion a statue of "General Hancock" that is being finished by Edward C. Potter, who has had much to do with the modeling of the horse,—a fine, stalwart animal,—that gives the statue the massiveness of Verocchio's famous equestrian statue of "General Colleoni" in Venice.

John Quincy Adams Ward, who died in New York on May 1, was born in Urbana, Ohio, in 1830. He had long been regarded as the dean of American sculptors, although Thomas Ball, an artist of equal ability, who is still living in Montclair, N. J., was born in 1819. But Ball has not pursued his profession of recent years, while Ward was active up to the very time of his death.

The monumental statue was looked upon as the highest achievement of the sculptor when young Ward, at the age of nineteen, entered the studio of Henry Kirke Brown in Brooklyn.

Lorado Taft, in his "History of American Sculpture," tells us that Ward remained with Mr. Brown nearly seven years, assisting him in every part of the work, from

THE LATE J. Q. A. WARD AT WORK ON HIS MODEL FOR THE SEA HORSES UPON THE DEWEY ARCH IN NEW YORK CITY (1899)

(Mr. Ward had the esteem of all of our sculptors because of the interest he always took in public art movements, and his contribution to the Dewey Arch proved this attitude, for the sculptors gave their services free, and Mr. Ward spent much time, although nearly seventy years of age, in working upon his model of the group for the arch. This consisted of a free adaptation of the Victory of Samothrace driving a six-horse chariot. Here we see Mr. Ward modeling the horses. It is in this manner that a sculptor usually executes his sketch for a public monument. From this sketch his assistants make an enlargement in clay, and from the clay model a marble copy or a bronze cast is made. In the case of the Dewey Arch the final copy was made of staff)

kneading clay to building up frames for heroic statues. Thus he learned modeling, casting, pointing, marble carving, and the casting of bronze. He had a hand in everything that was done, and more than a hand in the final product of that period, the great equestrian "Washington" (by Brown) of Union Square, the second equestrian statue modeled in this country.

"It was during the later years of this apprenticeship that he conceived the idea of his 'Indian Hunter,' which he modeled first as a statuette in 1857. It was not until 1864 that he executed it in large size, after a long trip among the Indians of the West and Northwest."

Ward did not remain long with Brown, but soon set up in a studio for himself and received no further instructions in his art. He did not study in Europe, as have most of America's famous sculptors.

Many of his statues are in New York.

Four are in Central Park,—"The Indian Hunter" (1864), "Shakespeare" (1870), "The Seventh Regiment Soldier," and "The Pilgrim" (1885). In Wall Street is the "Washington," and less than a block away in Nassau street is the "Pediment of the Stock Exchange." In Park Row, in front of the Tribune Building, is the "Greeley" (1890), and in Madison Square Park stands the "Conkling." Half a dozen more of his portrait statues are scattered about the city. In Washington are his "General Thomas" (1878), "Lincoln," and "Garfield" (1887). In Gettysburg is his "General Reynolds," in Spartansburg "General Morgan," in Hartford "General Putnam," in Burlington, Vt., "Lafayette" (1883), and in Brooklyn "Beecher" (1891).

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE'S ART EXHIBITION

THE fourteenth annual international art exhibition now being held at the Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg, which will remain open until July 1, has been characterized as the best annual exhibition of paintings ever held in America.

The foreign paintings shown are contributed from artists from almost every country in Europe, as well as Australia, and the American paintings come from many different sections of our country.

The prizes have been awarded as follows:

Medal for the first class (gold), carrying with it an award of $1500, to William Orpen, of London, England, for his "Portrait of the Artist." Mr. Orpen is an associate of the Royal Academy of Arts, London, and a member of the Royal Hibernian Academy of Arts, Dublin.

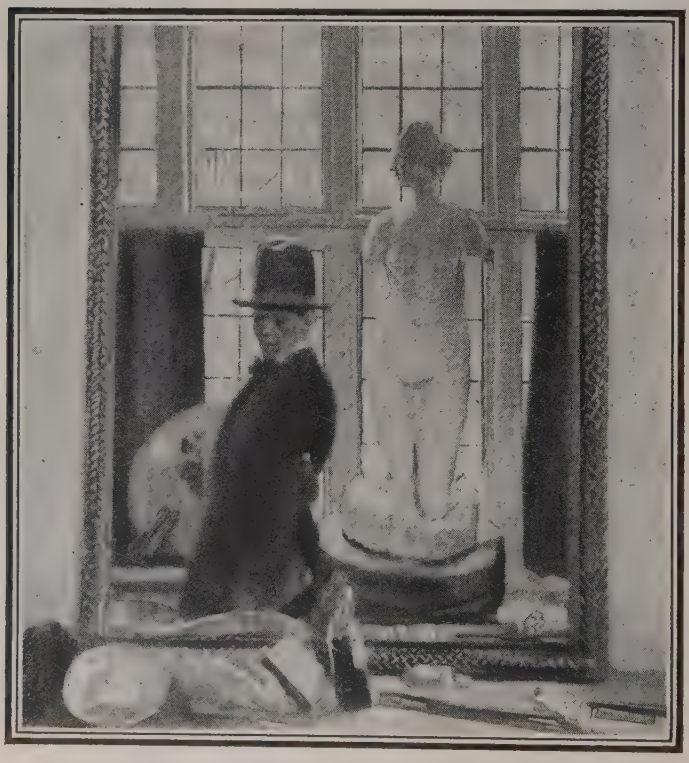
Medal for the second class (silver), carrying with it an award of $1000, to Karl Anderson, of New York, for his "Idlers: August." Mr. Anderson was born at Oxford, Ohio.

Medal of the third class (bronze), carrying with it an award of $500, to Edward F. Rook, for his "Laurel." Mr. Rook was born in New York. He won the Temple gold medal at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts in 1898; bronze medal at the Pan-American Exposition, Buffalo, 1901, and two silver medals at the University Exposition, St. Louis, 1904.

Honorable mention was given to:

Joseph Oppenheim, Berlin, Germany, for his "Chinese Porcelains." Charles Morris Young, Jenkintown, Pa., "Farmhouse in Winter." Daniel Garber, Lumberville, Pa., "Hills of Byram." Louis Betts, Chicago, Ill., "Apple Blossoms."

The jury of award is: John W. Beatty, president; William H. Chase, New York; Charles H. Davis, Mystic, Conn.; Childe Hassam, New



"PORTRAIT OF THE ARTIST" BY WILLIAM ORPEN, ENGLAND

(First-class gold medal, with award of $1500)

"THE CHASE," BY E. A. HORNEL, ENGLAND

York; W. L. Lathrop, New Hope, Pa.; Henri Eugene Le Sidaner, Paris, France; Albert Neuhuys, Amsterdam, Holland; Leonard Ochtman, Cos Cob, Conn.; Edward W. Redfield, Center Bridge, Pa.; W. Elmer, Schofield, Philadelphia, and Charles H. Woodbury, Boston.

The jury is an international one, elected from the previous year's exhibitors.

There is no academic board back of the exhibition, whose members are entitled to a certain amount of wall space, irrespective of the merits of their paintings. There is no sectionalism. An artist sending a painting from a little village in the Far West stands as good a chance of having it accepted as does an artist living in Paris or New York. Every picture shown is shown upon its merits. There is no favoritism at Pittsburg.

John W. Beatty directs the Institute solely with a view to keeping up the standard of the annual exhibitions, and making them representative of the world's best art to-day.

The effort is to stimulate both American and foreign artists to the highest level of action. They feel their work will be compared with the best work from every country, and they wish to hold their own with such work; hence they strive to do their best, and the result makes a striking exhibition.

"GIRL WITH CARNATIONS," BY LUCIEN SIMON

"FEBRUARY SUNSHINE" BY STANHOPE A. FORBES, ENGLAND

The public are the gainers from this status of affairs. Their taste is cultivated by attending the yearly exhibitions. They are given a standard by which they can measure other exhibitions. It is, indeed, for the establishment of a high standard more than for anything else that the Carnegie Institute deserves the thanks of the American public.

The illustrations we publish (selected at random from available photographs, and not with any estimate of their superior merit above other contributions), will give an idea of the varied character of the three hundred and four paintings shown. We see that landscapes, ideal figure subjects, genres and portraits are contributed, and that they are painted in the broad manner characteristic of modern technique.

An entire gallery is given up to some thirty-five pictures by Childe Hassam.

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THE PULASKI MONUMENT, UNVEILED LAST MONTH IN WASHINGTON

HONORING THE MEMORY OF PULASKI AND KOSCIUSKO

AFTER more than a century and a quarter since the completion of their services to this country, the heroism of Pulaski and Kosciusko has been recognized by the American people. Last month bronze statues, heroic in size, of these two Polish soldier-idealists who fought as volunteers in our war for independence, were unveiled in Washington. The picturesque and impressive ceremonies attending these unveilings were marked by noteworthy addresses by President Taft, Secretary of War Dickinson, and a number of officials of the Polish National Alliance, the organization of American Poles which conducted the ceremonies, and later held an important congress of their countrymen in the United States.

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PRESIDENT TAFT AND SECRETARY DICKINSON AT THE UNVEILING OF THE PULASKI STATUE

THE AMERICAN GROUP ON THE PEDESTAL OF THE KOSCIUSKO MONUMENT

More than 10,000 Polish citizens of American birth had assembled in Washington to pay tribute to two noble sons of freedom of their own national stock, thus symbolizing once more the glory of their motherland. At the same time with the enthusiastic co-operation of the American Government and of thousands of American citizens present on the occasion, they added two splendid monuments to the capital city.

The city of Washington is not embellished with as many artistic and worthy public monuments as patriotic and art-loving Americans would wish. It is, therefore, particularly gratifying that these noble monuments, while they commemorate the glorious deeds of two of Washington's generals, whose memory, as President Taft felicitously put it, "is forever sweet to the American people," should also be noteworthy from the standpoint of works of art.

Both statues are set in central portions of the city. The equestrian figure of Pulaski, the work of a Polish-American sculptor, Casimir Chodzinski, shows the cavalry leader in the hussar uniform he wore when he conducted his famous attack at the battle of the Brandywine. It is an impressive figure, noble and dignified in bearing. It was erected in accordance with an act of Congress passed in 1903. The sculptor, Chodzinski, gathered material for his work in Paris, Berlin, and also in parts of Poland, and secured from the descendants of Pulaski (a great-grandson of whom participated in the ceremonies of the unveiling) a life size painting of the revolutionary hero on horseback.

The monument to Kosciusko is in Lafayette Park, opposite the White House, and is one of five planned for that location. A statue of Andrew Jackson already marks the center of the park. One of the others is to be to Lafayette and one to Rochambeau, the noble Frenchmen who fought in our Revolution, while on the fourth corner there will be erected a monument to Baron von Steuben, one of the German volunteers in our cause. In another section of the city the fame of De Kalb will be commemorated. The tribute to Kosciusko is composed of an erect, soldierly, impressive figure of the man himself, the map of West Point in one hand, the other on his sword, and two subordinate groups at the foot of the pedestal. On one side an American soldier is releasing an American son of

THE KOSCIUSKO MONUMENT UNVEILED LAST MONTH IN WASHINGTON

(This reproduction of the sculptor's model may be used as a key to the other illustrations and the description in the text. The group shown in the lower left-hand corner of this model is reproduced, enlarged, on the same page. The group in the lower right-hand corner is shown enlarged on the opposite page)

the soil from bondage to a foreign oppressor, while on the other a dying Polish officer consigns to a peasant with a scythe the future defense of the fatherland. The map of the United States, with the American eagle guarding, is on the front of the pedestal. On the back is shown the continents of Europe and Asia attacked by the serpent of despotism, with the Polish eagle fighting in defense of civilization. The whole is the work of Anthony Popiel, a sculptor of Lemberg, Austrian Poland. The Kosciusko monument is a gift of the Polish National Alliance and other organizations of Poles in the United States. In consideration of this gallant Pole's valiant services in our defense, it would have been more fitting and dignified, as was happily remarked by Secretary Dickinson in his speech accepting the gift, had this statue, as well as the one to Pulaski, also

THE POLISH GROUP ON THE PEDESTAL OF THE KOSCIUSKO MONUMENT

been the result of American national or popular effort.

"It would be idle to speculate," said President Taft in his address, "what might have been the success of American arms in the War of the Revolution, had we not been assisted by foreign nations and subjects of foreign countries."

THE FIGURE OF KOSCIUSKO ON THE MONUMENT IN WASHINGTON

It is sufficient for us to note that those who assisted us in that struggle of ours for independence and liberty contributed materially to our success, and it is appropriate that we should give enduring evidence of our gratitude to those who sympathized with us in that struggle and aided us in bringing about the independence which has made the progress of our country to its present stage possible.

Ex-President Roosevelt, in his message to the Polish National Alliance, assembled in its congress to consider how Poles might become better citizens of this country, while retaining their love for the traditions of their motherland, did not overstate the occasion when he referred to the two Polish heroes, Pulaski and Kosciusko, voluntary soldiers in George Washington's army, as "historic characters whose name will be forever associated on the roll of honor of American history."

MARK TWAIN, ARTIST

BY WILLIAM LYON PHELPS

(Professor of English Literature, Yale University)

IF necessity is the mother of invention, misfortune is the mother of literature. When Nathaniel Hawthorne was ejected from the Custom-House at Salem he went home in a despondent frame of mind, only to be greeted by his wonderful wife's pertinent remark, "Now you can write your book." He responded to this stimulus by writing the best book ever written in the Western Hemisphere, "The Scarlet Letter." We learn from a famous chapter in "Roughing It" that if Samuel L. Clemens had not gone to help a sick friend, or if his partner had received the note he left for him before starting on this charitable expedition, Samuel L. Clemens would have been a millionaire. This episode has since his death been printed in a list of the misfortunes that marked his romantic and tragic career. But if at that time Mr. Clemens had become a millionaire, and he missed it by the narrowest possible margin, he never would have become Mark Twain. He struggled against his destiny with all the physical and mental force he possessed. He tried to make a living by every means except literature, and nothing but steady misfortune and dire necessity made him walk in the foreordained path. Mark Twain always regarded himself as the plaything of chance; professing no belief in God, he never thanked Him for his amazing successes, nor rebelled against Him for his sufferings. But if ever there was a man whose times were in His hand, that man was Mark Twain.

Mark Twain was a greater artist than he was humorist; a greater humorist than he was philosopher; a greater philosopher than he was thinker. Goethe's well-known remark about Byron, "The moment he thinks, he is a child," would in some respects be applicable to Mark Twain. The least valuable part of his work is found among his efforts to rewrite history, his critical essays on men and on institutions, and his contributions to introspective thought. His long book on Joan of Arc is valuable only for its style; his short book on the Shakespeare-Bacon controversy shows appalling ignorance; his defense of Harriet Shelley is praiseworthy only in its chivalry; his attack on Fenimore Cooper is of no consequence except as a humorous document; his labored volume on Christian Science has little significance; and when his posthumous essay on the "Meaning of Life" is published, as I am afraid it will be before long, it will surprise and depress more readers than it will convince.

As a philosopher, Mark Twain was a pessimist as to the value of the individual life and an optimist concerning human progress. He agreed with Schopenhauer that non-existence was preferable to existence; that sorrow was out of all proportion to happiness. On the other hand, he had absolutely nothing of Carlyle's peculiar pessimism, who regarded the human soul as something noble and divine, but insisted that modern progress was entirely in the wrong direction, and that things in general were steadily growing worse. Carlyle believed in God and man, but he hated democracy as a political principle; Mark Twain apparently believed in neither God nor man, but his faith in democracy was so great that he almost made a religion out of it. He was never tired of exposing the tyranny of superstition and of unmasking the romantic splendor of medieval life.

Mark Twain was one of the foremost humorists of modern times; and there are not wanting good critics who already dare to place him with Rabelais, Cervantes, and Molière. Others would regard such an estimate as mere hyperbole, born of transient enthusiasm. But we all know now that he was more than a funmaker; we know that his humor, while purely American, had the note of universality. He tested historical institutions, the social life of past ages, political and religious creeds, and the future abode of the saints by the practical touchstone of humor. Nothing sharpens the eyes of a traveler more than a sense of humor; nothing enables him better to make the subsequent story of his journey pictorially impressive. "The Innocents Abroad" is a great book,

because it represents the wonders of Europe as seen by an unawed Philistine with no background; he has his limitations, but at any rate his opinions of things are formed *after* he sees them, and not before. He looks with his own eyes, not through the colored spectacles of convention. "Roughing It" is a still greater book, because in the writing of that no background was necessary, no limitations are felt; we know that his testimony is true. The humor of Mark Twain is American in its point of view, in its love of the incongruous, in its fondness for colossal exaggeration; but it is universal in that it deals not with passing phenomena, or with matters of temporary interest, but with essential and permanent aspects of human nature.

As an artist Mark Twain already seems great. The funniest man in the world, he was at the same time a profoundly serious artist, a faithful servant of his literary ideals. The environment, the characterization, and the humanity in "Tom Sawyer" remind us of the great novelists, whose characters remain in our memory as sharply defined individuals simply because they have the touch of nature that makes the whole world kin. In other words, "Tom Sawyer" resembles the masterpieces of fiction in being intensely local and at the same time universal. Tom Sawyer is a definite personality; but he is also eternal boyhood. In "Huckleberry Finn" we have three characters who are so different that they live in different worlds, and really speak different languages, Tom, Huck, and Jim; we have an amazingly clear presentation of life in the days of slavery; we have a marvelous moving picture of the Father of Waters; but, above all, we have a vital drama of humanity, in its nobility and baseness, its strength and weakness, its love of truth and its love of fraud, its utter pathos and its side-splitting mirth. Like nearly all faithful pictures of the world, it is a vast tragi-comedy. What does it matter if our great American had his limitations and his excrescences? To borrow his own phrase, "There is that about the sun that makes us forget his spots."

MARK TWAIN AND THE OLD TIME SUBSCRIPTION BOOK

BY GEORGE ADE

MARK TWAIN should be doubly blessed for saving the center table from utter dullness. Do you remember that center table of the seventies? The marble top showed glossy in the subdued light that filtered through the lace curtains, and it was clammy cold even on hot days. The heavy mahogany legs were chiseled into writhing curves from which depended stern geometrical designs or possibly bunches of grapes. The Bible had the place of honor and was flanked by subscription books. In those days the house never became cluttered with the ephemeral six best sellers. The new books came a year apart, and each was meant for the center table, and it had to be so thick and heavy and emblazoned with gold that it could keep company with the bulky and high-priced Bible.

Books were bought by the pound. Sometimes the agent was a ministerial person in black clothes and a stove-pipe hat. Maiden ladies and widows, who supplemented their specious arguments with private tales of woe, moved from one small town to another feeding upon prominent citizens. Occasionally the prospectus was unfurled by an undergraduate of a freshwater college working for the money to carry him another year.

The book-agents varied, but the book was always the same,—many pages, numerous steel engravings, curly-cue tail-pieces, platitudes, patriotism, poetry, sentimental mush. One of the most popular, still resting in many a dim sanctuary, was known as "Mother, Home, and Heaven." A ponderous collection of "Poetical Gems" did not involve the publishers in any royalty entanglements. Even the "Lives of the Presidents" and "Noble Deeds of the Great and Brave" gave every evidence of having been turned out as piece-work by needy persons temporarily lacking employment on newspapers. Let us not forget the "Manual of Deportment and Social Usages," from which the wife of

any agriculturist could learn the meaning of R. S. V. P. and the form to be employed in acknowledging an invitation to a levee.

Nobody really wanted these books. They were purchased because the agents knew how to sell them, and they seemed large for the price, and, besides, every well-furnished home had to keep something on the center table.

Subscription books were dry picking for boys. Also they were accessible only on the Sabbath after the weekly scouring. On week-days the boys favored an underground circulating library, named after Mr. Beadle, and the hay-mow was the chosen reading room. Let one glorious exception be made in the case of "Dr. Livingstone's Travels in Africa," a subscription book of forbidding size, but containing many pictures of darkies with rings in their noses.

Just when front-room literature seemed at its lowest ebb, so far as the American boy was concerned, along came Mark Twain. His books looked, at a distance, just like the other distended, diluted, and altogether tasteless volumes that had been used for several decades to balance the ends of the center table. The publisher knew his public, so he gave a pound of book for every fifty cents, and crowded in plenty of wood-cuts and stamped the outside with golden bouquets and put in a steel engraving of the author, with a tissue paper veil over it, and "sicked" his multitude of broken-down clergymen, maiden ladies, grass widows, and college students on to the great American public.

Can you see the boy, a Sunday morning prisoner, approach the new book with a dull sense of foreboding, expecting a dose of Tupper's "Proverbial Philosophy"? Can you see him a few minutes later when he finds himself linked arm-in-arm with Mulberry Sellers or Buck Fanshaw or the convulsing idiot who wanted to know if Christopher Columbus was sure-enough dead? No wonder he curled up on the hair-cloth sofa and hugged the thing to his bosom and lost all interest in Sunday-school. "Innocents Abroad" was the most enthralling book ever printed until "Roughing It" appeared. Then along came "The Gilded Age," "Life on the Mississippi," and "Tom Sawyer," one cap sheaf after another. While waiting for a new one we read the old ones all over again.

The new uniform edition with the polite little pages, high-art bindings, and all the boisterous wood-cuts carefully expurgated can never take the place of those lumbering subscription books. They were the early friends and helped us to get acquainted with the most amazing story-teller that ever captivated the country boys and small-town boys all over America.

While we are honoring Mark Twain as a great literary artist, a philosopher, and a teacher, let the boys of the seventies add their tribute. They knew him for his miracle of making the subscription book something to be read and not merely looked at. He converted the Front Room from a Mausoleum into a Temple of Mirth.

From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

MARK TWAIN SITTING ON THE WALL OF HIS ITALIAN GARDEN AT HIS HOME IN REDDING, CONNECTICUT

MARK TWAIN AS A NEIGHBOR

BY DAN BEARD

WHEN I joined the colony at Redding Albert Bigelow Paine told me that Mark Twain would soon build on the hill facing Lonetown-Brook Farm, and shortly after that a new house began to appear above the treetops. But it was not until the following June that it was habitable, and in the latter part of that month the announcement was made that Mark Twain would arrive upon a certain day to occupy his new home. Up to that time he had not seen a sketch or plan of the house, nor had he read any description of it. He had expressed the desire not to be bothered with the details or anything else concerning his new home, stating that he did not wish to know anything about it until he could take an easy-chair in the billiard room and light his pipe there.

Outside of the colony of literary and artistic people from New York, the people of Redding are typical Connecticut Yankees, with good old-fashioned names, familiar in the annals of the American Revolution and subsequent history of the country, and while they are farmers and tradesmen, they are all of them well-read and educated; consequently the announcement that Mark Twain was to arrive on the afternoon train was received with joyful anticipation, and from Gallows Hill to Umpawaug they turned out to meet him, with their carriages, buckboards, and surreys decorated with flowers, old-fashioned pink roses, and pink ribbons, and filled with neatly dressed children, for by that secret wireless which was in operation long before Marconi made his modern instruments the rumor had spread that Mark Twain was very fond of little children, and that pink was his favorite color. When the famous author alighted from the train, Underwood the photographer was there, and the children were gathered to make a group for a photograph, with the white humorist upon the railroad platform. After posing for the pic-

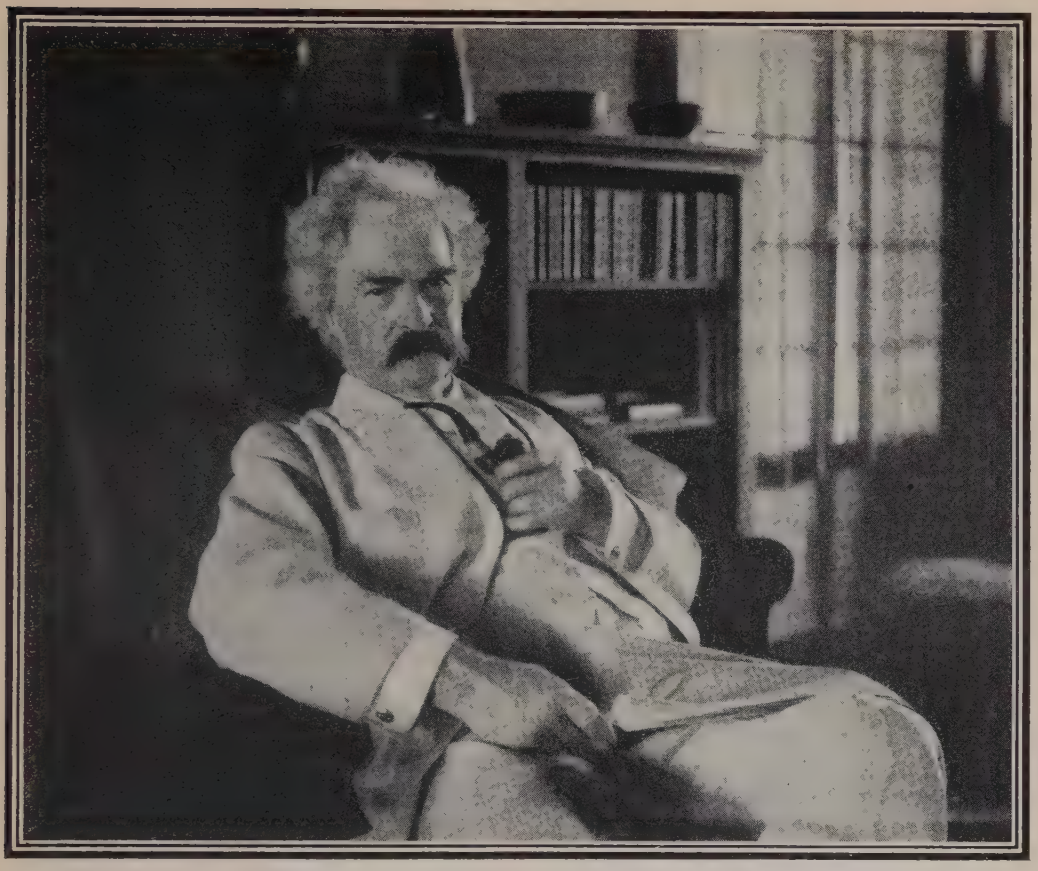
ture Mr. Clemens got into the surrey, which the ladies had beautifully decorated with dainty maidenhair ferns and pink roses, and drove to his new home, escorted by his new neighbors.

Mr. Clemens owned no automobiles, no horses, and had only one coach. The latter was presented by Mr. Langdon to Mrs. Clemens on her wedding-day. It shows the signs of age and weather, and inside is profusely decorated by the humorist's own hand, where he has scratched innumerable matches on the varnish to light his cigars. When they tried to persuade him to have a stable or a garage of his own he replied that he intended to travel on his own hind-legs. But when his daughters arrived they brought with them their horses,—old "Scott" and "Sami,"—for their own use, both of them being saddle-horses. Miss Jean Clemens later procured a farm-horse for work, but Mr. Clemens continued to use his own "hind-legs," except when he went on long drives, or to and from the station,—then he used livery horses.

The night of his arrival they had planned, at Stormfield, to have some fireworks. I had been busy all the afternoon painting the hen-coop, and still had on my paint-daubed clothes when I met my neighbor, Mr. Lounsbury, who asked me to come and help him with the fireworks. Jumping into his rig we rattled up the hill, and were soon knocking open the boxes of pyrotechnics, consisting principally of rockets and red fire. We started the display down by the pergola in front of the Italian villa, where I thought no one would see us. The sticks from the rockets fell in the pastures and sent the cattle and horses tearing around the fields. Our attention was so occupied with the effect of the display that we did not realize that the illumination made us plainly visible from the house, until some one stepped out on the plaza and shouted through a megaphone that Mr. Clemens wanted us both to come up and join the company in the drawing-room. There was no escape, and our embarrassment can be imagined when we discovered that we must enter the brilliantly lighted rooms in our working clothes and mingle with the people who were arrayed in full evening dress. My face and hands were blackened with powder and my clothes stiffened with that peculiar shade of red paint only to be seen on farm buildings in rural districts. Thus arrayed, I stood in the middle of the floor while my genial old friend and new neighbor proposed a toast to me.

When the workmen at last put the finishing touches upon the house built on top of Birch Spray Hill (now known to history as Stormfield), Mark Twain served a collation to them, made one of his characteristic

"STORMFIELD," MARK TWAIN'S HOME AT REDDING, CONNECTICUT



MARK TWAIN IN THE LIBRARY OF HIS CONNECTICUT HOME

speeches, and then shook hands all round. Only the workmen were present upon this occasion.

Stormfield is a long, gray building, of Italian architectural design. It is two and a half stories high, with low roof of stained shingles and concrete walls. The foundation is about 70 x 40 feet, with a wing at each end of 18 x 20. On the first floor there is the kitchen and accessories and a dining-room looking out upon the plaza and the broad walk leading down to the pergola and fountain. Then there is a commodious billiard room and a library or drawing room about 40 x 22 feet. All the apartments are of generous proportions. The north wing consists of a loggia on the first floor and a music-room upon the second floor.

The house is richly, but unobtrusively decorated and furnished. The rugs, furniture, and decorations harmonize, and consequently are artistic and in good taste. The only thing remarkable about the paintings is their absence. The billiard-room walls are, however, decorated with numerous caricatures of Mark Twain himself, made by celebrated men in that line of work both here and abroad.

The whole house strikes one as being homelike, comfortable, and in this respect in direct contrast with Mr. Clemens' former dwelling on Fifth Avenue, New York City. The latter had the appearance of a total lack of design, theme, or purpose, which made it seem to be but a temporary camping-place,—as it probably was. The house at Stormfield was constructed by John Mead Howells as supervising architect. In spite of the foreign style of architecture, Stormfield fits naturally on the top of Birch Spray Hill, which forms part of the ridge bordering the west side of the Saugatuck River. The long, gray, low-roofed house seems to be as much a part of the landscape as do the gray, lichen-covered glacier-boulders strewn through the fields. The building has been set on the rounded top of the ridge, which was formerly an old pasture-lot, and is now over-

grown with clumps of bayberry bushes and dotted with the green spires of small cedar trees. The shrubbery and trees have been unmolested, except where it was necessary to remove them in making the driveways and walks.

Among the bushes a shy, yellow-breasted chat laughs and chortles, and underneath the brown thrashers build their nests upon the ground or bare rocks. Mark Twain's cats wore bells on their necks, purposely arranged to alarm the birds and prevent the cats from catching them. The house faces the east, and in front is a broad, open plaza, with a walk which ends at the pergola and fountain, about a hundred yards from the doorsteps. If I may be allowed the paradoxical expression, there is another front door at the west side of the house, facing the driveway. The plaza and walk to the pergola were so arranged that Mr. Clemens could walk about there in his dressing-gown and slippers, as was his custom. But his favorite lounging-place was in the loggia, and on pleasant days he was usually to be found there playing hearts with his guests, or reading and smoking.

Mr. Clemens, in his own drawing-room, was not the same man that one met at the club or in the Bohemian society of New York. My personal acquaintance with him dates back some twenty-one years, and while I always found him courteous, genial, and entertaining in the studio, at the club, and when I visited him in his bedroom, it was not until I met him socially, surrounded by his own family, that I knew the domestic side of his character. As a host, he was dignified, courteous, and prodigal in his hospitality, possessing all the admirable characteristics of the best type of the old-fashioned Southern gentleman.

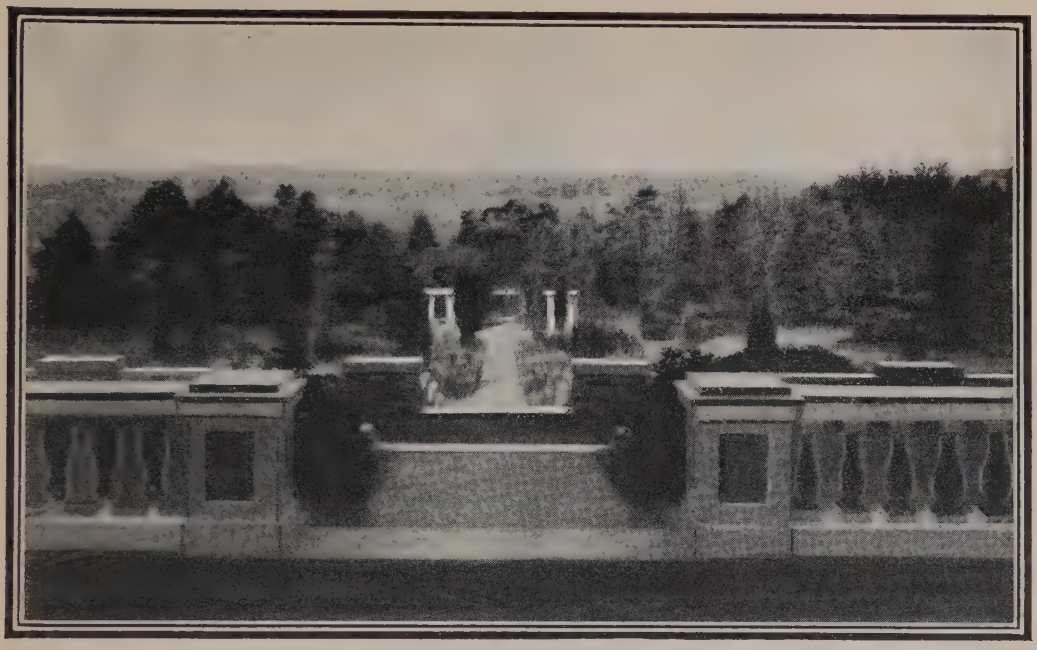
This was very strongly emphasized at the musicale, where David Bispham recited and Ossip Gabrilowitsch, the celebrated young Russian pianist (now Mr. Clemens' son-in-law), with Miss Clara Clemens, contralto, made the entertainment a unique one for a rural district. The affair was gotten up for the benefit of the Mark Twain Library, and the committee could easily have sold the best seats at $25 a ticket, but Mr. Clemens would allow only such prices charged as would place the tickets within reach of the most humble inhabitants of Redding. Among the company on that occasion were people who represented many millions of dollars, but their money gave them no precedence over their poorer neighbors. It seemed to be a fixed principle at Stormfield that all those to whom the hospitable doors were opened stood upon an equal footing.

In a short speech introducing the entertainers Mr. Clemens said: "Mr. Gabrilowitsch and Mr. Bispham I know you know; nothing more is necessary; they couldn't be better known if they had just discovered the North Pole. My daughter is not so well known, but she is much better looking."

Probably the most startling and picturesque incident during Mr. Clemens' short time at Redding was when the two misguided young men from New York burglarized the house on the hill. This came very near being a tragic affair, and our sheriff carries two bullet-wounds to remember it by. The following morning neighbor Lounsbury's stable-yard looked like a field hospital in time of war. The village doctor was busy binding up the battered head of one of the burglars and caring for the bullet-wounds in the leg and thumb of the doughty sheriff. By great good fortune I happened to be in the little town clerk's office when Mark Twain himself entered. It was a small, narrow room on the west side of the little one-story building. A safe stood at the north end, near a plain deal table at which the officials sat.

At the south end of the room there was, on this occasion, a small table, at which the two prisoners, with the gyves upon their wrists, sat waiting their fate. One of them had his head swathed in bandages and the back of his coat stiff with his own gore. The other, with an insolent smile, was smoking a cigarette. Some kind neighbor had supplied them with sandwiches and coffee. The sheriff was limping around, with one hand done up in bandages, and, as he said, "a bootfull of blood, begob." The officials were in the clothes they wore at their farmwork, and the doors were crowded with rustics. In strong contrast with the simple surroundings was the fashionably dressed Miss Clara Clemens and her feminine companions.

When Mark Twain entered, arrayed in his white flannel suit, he stopped at the table occupied by the two "yeggmen." This was before any of the newspaper men had arrived, and they missed a most characteristic and interesting heart to heart talk with a live burglar. Said the white philosopher: "So you're the two young men who called at my house last night and forgot to put your names in my guest-book? Now that was a



VIEW OF LANDSCAPE AND PERGOLA FROM THE DINING-ROOM AT "STORMFIELD"

pretty sort of business for you, wasn't it, and a nice way to treat me, after I've been down on the East Side working for just such fellows as you, and after I made Bingham take back what he said about the Jews."

"Excuse me, Mr. Clemens," interrupted the battered and wounded prisoner, for the first time showing any interest in the proceedings, "my parents are Jewish."

"Then you're a disgrace to your race!"

"Well, I guess I am," replied the burglar.

"Now you two young men," continued Mr. Clemens, "have been up to my house, stealing my tinware, and got pulled in by these Yankees up here. You had much better have stayed in New York, where you have the pull. Don't you see where you're drifting to? They'll send you from here down to Bridgeport jail, and the next thing you know you'll be in the United States Senate. There's no other future left open to you."

It was worthy of remark that even the burglar treated Mark Twain with a deference which was the more marked because of the sullen contempt with which the "yeggman" greeted every one else.

Mark Twain called one of the neighbors up to fix the driveway around the house at Stormfield the next day, and said he wanted that mud-puddle fixed, because if he ever started for church again he wanted to get there. Then he excused himself to go into the house while he registered the names of the two burglars upon his guest-book, adding after the signature "without permission."

Whether Mark Twain was greeting the guests at one of the lawn-parties given for the benefit of the library by the ladies of the neighborhood, or talking to the plumber, the mail-carrier or the groceryman, he always succeeded in injecting a feeling of good-will and neighborly interest, entirely devoid of condescension, which endeared the old gentleman to all who came in contact with him, and during his illness nothing but the sincerest sympathy and good wishes found voice among the people of Redding; for while they were proud of their neighbor's fame and achievements, it was the sterling qualities of the man and neighbor which won their affection and esteem. And in the little community where he died it will be those qualities which will be talked of at the chimney corner and passed on to the coming generation as characteristics for them to emulate and admire. The Redding people are content to allow the big world to mourn the loss of the great humorist, while they mourn the departure of an ideal neighbor and old-fashioned, hospitable, courtly gentleman, whose democracy was so much a part of his character that it was perfectly natural and unconscious.

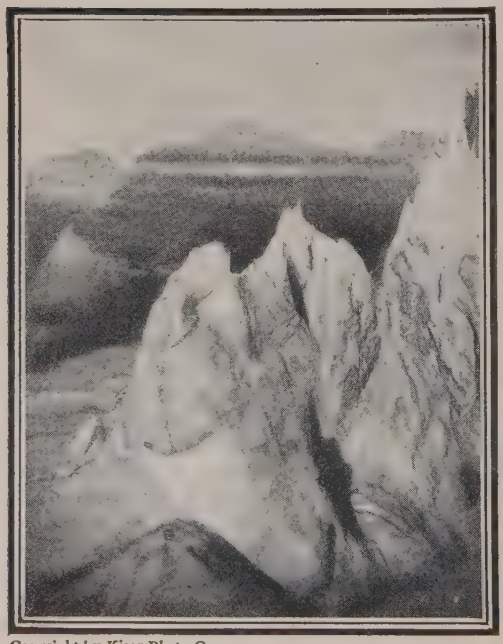
MOUNTAIN AND GLACIAL SCENERY IN THE NEW NATIONAL PARK
Mount Sujeh (10,000 feet) and glaciers, from Canyon Creek

A NEW PLAYGROUND FOR THE NATION

GLACIER NATIONAL PARK IN NORTHERN MONTANA AUTHORIZED BY CONGRESS

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

(United States Geological Survey)



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BLACKFOOT GLACIER, THE LARGEST IN THE PARK

THE day following the announcement that the highest point on the North American continent had been climbed by Alaskan explorers Congress was good enough to pass a bill creating into a national park an area in northern Montana rivaling, if not far surpassing in wild grandeur and interest, the Mount McKinley region. This is known as the Glacier National Park.

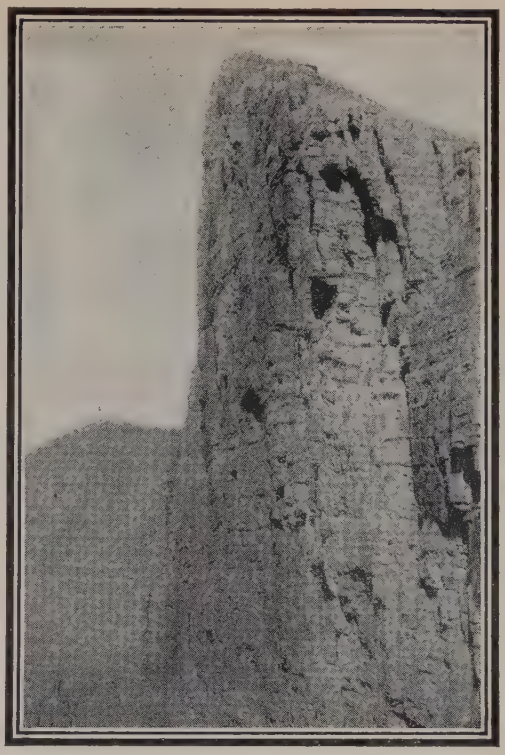
Few people will ever see Mount McKinley, remote and inaccessible in the interior of Alaska, but almost any one with a little time and a hundred dollars or so may penetrate the pristine fastnesses of Glacier Park and study at first hand a stupendous example of mountain-building and glacial sculpturing, and traverse glaciers as real as those of the far-famed Alps.

The new Glacier Park is our second greatest national park, comprising about a million acres, and exceeded in area only by the Yellowstone National Park. It lies just below the Canadian boundary line and is skirted on the south by the Great Northern Railroad, comprising an unsullied portion of the

continent, but one withal readily accessible to the traveler. Of course, transit facilities will increase many fold in the future to this delightful region.

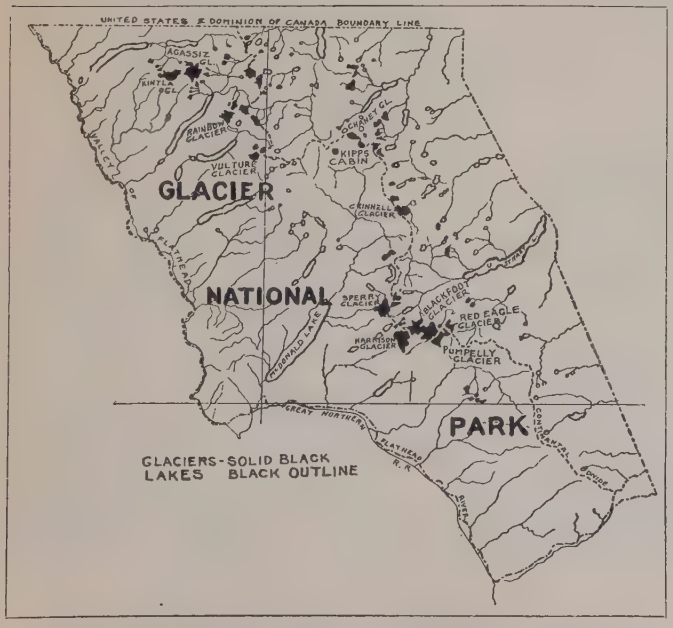
This great park includes perhaps as inspiring a region as is to be found in the United States. Verdant meadows, knee deep in rich pasturage and brightened with many wild flowers, merge into primeval forests of giant spruce and mountain pine, thinning into smaller growths as the altitude increases, finally reaching the timber line, to be succeeded by bare glistening rocks of wonderful coloring and glacier-laden mountain-sides. Deep gorges and stupendous U-shaped canyons, smoothed and softened by the vast ancient glaciers of the Ice Age, gridiron the region, while beautiful lakes nestle in the troughs and hollows cut out by the slow-moving ice masses of prehistoric eras.

Pausing for a moment from the consideration of Cannonism, tariff commissions, and railroad legislation, Congress acted wisely in dedicating this region of natural splendors to the people of America as a national "playground." Of little if any economic importance, but containing scenery of surpassing sublimity, it will become a more and more used retreat for the tired worker bent on a month of vacation and seeking to catch a glimpse of Nature's matchless handiwork in continent-making.



GOATHAUNT PEAK, A SPUR OF MOUNT CLEVELAND, LEWIS RANGE

(A 2400-foot vertical limestone cliff. Goat trails extend across the cliff face)



THE NEW NATIONAL PARK IN NORTHERN MONTANA

("An unsullied portion of the continent")

Speaking in terms of geology the Rocky Mountains are as yet merely youngsters. Once the mountains of the Appalachian range, too, towered to heights of 12,000 or 15,000 feet above the sea, but during countless centuries of time they have been worn down by the chemistry of Nature, until they are now mere trunks of their former selves. When they reared their first lofty crests, jagged and precipitous as the Rockies of to-day, the western portion of the United States was a great ocean. The Rocky Mountains and the Sierras are thus young ranges, geologically, and although the vast glacial ice sheets which once plowed down their slopes have smoothed and sculptured their

AVALANCHE LAKE AND AVALANCHE BASIN

(One of the inspiring sights of Glacier Park)

outlines so that they no longer present the chaos of ruggedness which characterized them following their emergence from the ancient ocean bed, they yet present a panorama of huge pyramids, profound canyons, and massive rock walls, which to the eye familiar only with the outlines of our Eastern mountains seem the acme of titanic carving.

VULTURE PEAK AND GLACIER, CONTINENTAL DIVIDE

(An interesting and accessible glacier of nearly a square mile, but a remnant of the ancient continental glacier which covered the region)

GRINNELL GLACIER AND AMPHITHEATER

(A square mile of everlasting ice. The source of Swift Current Creek)

The Glacier Park region was partially surveyed a number of years ago by the United States Geological Survey, and the recent action of Congress was based largely upon a report and maps made by that bureau.* The park contains sixty or more live glaciers, some of them covering 5 square miles, and between 200 and 300 glacial lakes, the largest, Lake McDonald, over 3000 feet above sea level, covering 10 square miles.

Mount Cleveland, the highest peak, reaches an elevation of 10,434 feet, and there are literally scores of other splendid mountains,—some as clean-cut pyramids as though chiseled by hand and others as rugged as Nature could fashion them,—ranging from 6000 to 10,000 feet above sea level. To the traveler who wishes to test his mountain-climbing ability the peaks of the Livingston and the Lewis ranges in Glacier Park afford large opportunity.

THE PINNACLE OF THE CONTINENT

The rains and snows of Glacier Park find their way into the Saskatchewan, the Mis-

UPPER SWIFT CURRENT VALLEY

(The base slopes of Mt. Grinnell, which present good opportunities for the rock-scaling enthusiast)

* Two topographic maps of the region, sold by United States Geological Survey at cost price, 5 cents each.

"HEAVEN'S FOLD"

(Distortion of strata as seen from Mt. Heavens, Livingston Range. From the small snow bank in the center at the base to the summit of the peak the distance is over 2000 feet)

souri, and the Columbia rivers; it thus contains the main continental divide between the Atlantic and the Pacific as well as between Hudson Bay and the Gulf of Mexico. Mr. Bailey Willis, of the United States Geological Survey, one of the most accomplished of American geologists, studied this area in connection with the Northwest Boundary Survey conducted jointly by the Geological and the Coast Survey in 1901, and his description of the wild grandeur of the region approaches the classical. "Towering peaks of brilliant hues, he tells of, rising above huge ranges, seemingly bottomless canyons thousands of feet in depth, innumerable lakes, some rock-walled, others glistening like jewels with emerald settings of forested slopes and surmounted by vast amphitheaters and dazzling glaciers. There are two main ranges of the continental

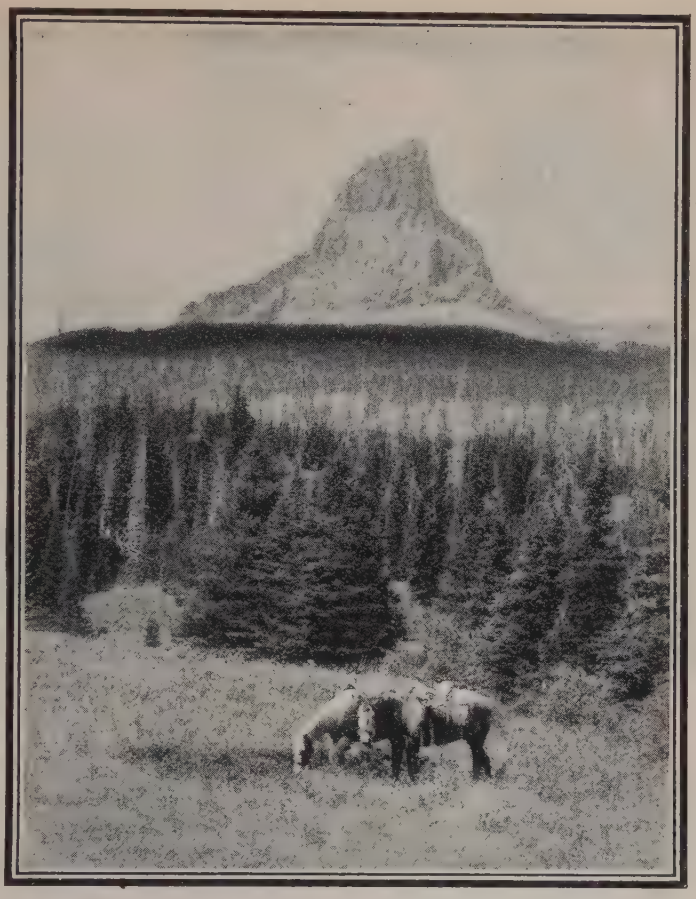
UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY PACK TRAIN AT SWIFT CURRENT PASS, LEWIS RANGE

(The hard snow is a great aid in crossing the rock ledges)

divide within the park, which for a considerable distance parallel each other,—the Lewis and the Livingston ranges. These present two crests about 10 miles apart, the former and easternmost having been named by Mr. Willis after Capt. Meriwether Lewis, who in 1806 was the first white man to cross it.

A NATURAL BARRIER

Approaching this range from the Great Plains which stretch for a thousand miles to the eastward it presents to the traveler an irregular rock wall of great steepness. Could Webster and other statesmen who for a time opposed the acquisition of the Pacific Coast territory have viewed this frowning barrier they might well have further emphasized their contention that the northern Rocky Mountain divide formed a natural and impassable boundary line for the American Republic. The precipices by which the Lewis Range is defined are frequently more than 1000 feet in height, and in some instances attain an altitude of 4500 feet, with inclines ranging from 50 degrees to the sheer vertical. These cliffs form the walls of stupendous amphitheaters, in the depths of which lie dark, silent lakes, the sources of the streams which dash down the canyons and flow into the Great Plains. This amazing sculpturing is the work of the huge ancient glaciers which cut out and scoured the original sharp V-shaped gorges. The letters V and U afford excellent symbols representing such mountain gorges before and after glacial scouring. The crest of the Lewis Range is everywhere narrow, and in many places may be likened to a gigantic knife edge of jagged rocks. Its rugged backbone is accentuated by high pinnacled peaks between which are wide gaps and canyons. In some instances these vast canyons are more than 3000 feet in depth.



CHIEF MOUNTAIN, 10,000 FEET ABOVE SEA LEVEL

MOUNTAIN GLACIER REFLECTIONS

(Upper Lake in the North Belly River Canyon, fed by Twin Glaciers)

WATERTOWN LAKE, CROSSED BY THE INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY LINE

PYRAMIDS OF EGYPT DWARFED

The Livingston Range, to the west, is somewhat broader, and presents massive mountain groups, with tremendous pyramids almost perfect in form rather than the dagger shaped spires of the Lewis Range. Both ranges are composed of stratified Algonkian rocks,—limestone, argillite, and quartzite,—set above and below one another in a wealth of vivid colors. Strata of dark and maroon-red argillite, gray, black, or greenish, are displayed against massive mural limestones or other masses of glistening yellow, terra-cotta, brown, or garnet-red, while mountains of yellow or white quartzite present a spectacle scarcely less dazzling than that of the perpetual glaciers. The thousand views of blood-red, yellow, and purplish rock, with shimmering lakes, green forests, blue skies, and snow mantled peaks, might well be left to the imagination in sheer desperation at description, except that imagination in this instance would be as futile as the pen. Here, for instance, lies a long lake shadowed by banded pyramids of deep-red argillite and mural limestone, or red pyramids whose peaks catch the sun's rays like blood; others of pale yellow set against titanic rock masses of deep purple, red, or brown, while the green of meadow or forested slope blend with the rock hues. And in the lake's shimmering bosom is brilliantly reflected this wealth of coloring, coupled with that of the cloud-flecked sky. There is no illusion of the atmosphere in coloring dull rocks and imbuing them for the time with wonderful hues, as is the case in some of the formations of the Southwest; the pigment is actually in the mountains of Glacier Park in wonderful variety and intensity.

ABOUNDING ANIMAL LIFE

Nor is scenery sublime the only attraction of the place. The many glacier-fed streams, tumbling and dashing along their steep courses, abound in gamey trout, and numerous wild animals and birds are its denizens. These latter may not be disturbed,—the deer, the elk, and the moose, the bighorn and the white goat and the giant grizzly,—but the tourist may fish to his heart's content. The Senate statement in support of the Glacier Park bill remarks that, as in the case of our other national parks, the game animals now protected by law from interference will increase to such an extent as to furnish in the overflow from the park a tempting supply to sportsmen for all time, while on the other hand, without the protection of a breeding-ground thus afforded, many of the animals, especially the bighorns and the deer,

would soon have become practically extinct. Numerous passes are found through the higher ranges. Across these the game trails lead from valley to valley. Following the game came the Indians; then came the Government engineers, exploring and mapping, and finally the hardier of the tourists and lovers of nature. Most of these passes are closed for many months of each year by snow; some of them are available only after the use of the axe to give footing on the hard ice of glaciers lying close to the Continental Divide, but across one or two of them wagon roads will be built by the Government, by which persons unfitted for the strenuous efforts now required to reach the higher country may have opportunity to enjoy it at close range.

The Canadian Government, it is stated, will now set aside a contiguous tract of land just across the international boundary, thus extending the park area. Certainly the American people, both our own folks and those of Canada, may well congratulate themselves on the creation, in the Glacier National Park, of another magnificent "playground" to remain always a region of untarnished beauty and natural wonders.

MOUNT GOULD, OF THE LEWIS RANGE, RISING NEARLY 5000 FEET ABOVE THE LAKE

McDONALD LAKE, THE LARGEST IN GLACIER PARK

(U. S. Geological Survey party en route. A welcome breathing space along the trail in contrast to the tangle of the forest and the rugged going on the slopes)

THE ATLANTIC FISHERIES DISPUTE

BY P. T. M'GRATH

[During the first few days of the present month the learned legal counsel for the United States, Great Britain, and Newfoundland will present to the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague the American, British, and Canadian contentions in the long-drawn-out, complicated fisheries dispute. Just now, when Canadian-American commercial relations over tariff matters have come so near to complete and satisfactory settlement it seems particularly appropriate that the vexed fisheries question should also be finally disposed of in a manner just and equitable to all concerned. Mr. McGrath is pre-eminently well equipped to set forth the entire question from all sides clearly and impartially, as he has done in the following informational article. Mr. McGrath is a journalist of long experience and keen perception. For many years he has been an editor of influential Newfoundland newspapers, and has been known for his fair and well-informed attitude upon Canadian-American relations. Articles by him on various phases of this subject have already been published in these pages, notably "New England's Deep-Sea Fishing Interests" (May, 1906) and "The Relations of Canada and the United States" (June, 1907). The REVIEW OF REVIEWS believes that a Newfoundlander of Mr. McGrath's experience and ability will make, on the whole, a more useful and adequate presentation of this important and involved subject than would be written by an American sympathizer with New England's claims in the matter.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Atlantic fisheries dispute now in process of settlement before the Hague Arbitration Tribunal is perhaps the most extraordinary complication in the realms of international diplomacy, because it really has involved Great Britain in serious entanglements with France as well as with the United States, entanglements by no means disposed of, though relegated to the background by the Anglo-French Convention of 1804, which was understood to have settled the phase of the difficulty known as the "French Shore Question."

Newfoundland, discovered by Cabot in 1497, annexed by Gilbert for Queen Elizabeth in 1583, and in part, if not altogether, held by England ever since, was long desired by France because of its fishery wealth, and the French occupied part of the coast for a long period and overran most of the settled portions of the island more than once. But in 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, England was recognized as sovereign of the whole territory, France being pacified with fishing concessions on the western section of the seaboard, which were confirmed and amplified by the treaties of Paris in 1763 and Versailles in 1783. The latter convention, which terminated the American War of Independence, contained clauses assuring American subjects of certain rights in the fisheries of the Grand Banks and on what we now know as the Canadian (including Newfoundland) seaboard. The Americans had claimed the right to prosecute these fisheries and to resort to this seaboard line as they had done prior to the war, but this claim was not allowed and they were granted lesser concessions. The War of 1812 terminated this treaty and, as the Americans were largely engaged in the northern fisheries, serious friction ensued until in 1818 a treaty, or convention, between Britain and America was signed at London to provide for the carrying on of these fisheries in future.

THE GRAND BANKS FREE TO ALL

The convention of 1818 contains the very essence of this whole dispute, as we understand it to-day. That treaty was a compromise between the extreme views of both parties. The Americans, hampered by the limitations imposed upon their fishery privileges by the War of 1812, were constantly violating the British laws, while the British, in their sweeping construction of their sovereign rights, risked precipitating another conflict. Prior to 1818 all negotiations concerning the fisheries had been based upon the theory that Britain had a proprietary interest in the bank, or deep-sea fisheries, as well as in the coast, or inshore fisheries, and all questions turned not upon the latter so much as upon the former, because the prosecution of these bank fisheries was greatly facilitated by the use of the Newfoundland coast as a base of operations, and to secure outfits and supplies.

AMERICAN SHORE RIGHTS

But now this position was abandoned and Britain virtually restricted herself to her

coast fishery rights, the Grand Banks and outer waters being admitted to be free to all nations. America, however, advanced a claim to inshore fishing, and the difficulty was adjusted in this wise:

American subjects were granted

(1) The liberty to fish on equal terms with British subjects on the southwest coast of Newfoundland, and also to land on the unsettled portions of the seaboard and dry their catch.

(2) The liberty to fish on the west coast of Newfoundland, from Cape Ray to Cape Norman, but without the right to land and dry their fish.

(3) The liberty to fish on the shores of the Magdalen Islands and

(4) The liberty to fish on the coast of Labrador from Anticosti eastward and northward indefinitely and to land and dry the catch, this latter concession further containing the proviso that they could fish in the bays and harbors and creeks, whereas with regard to Newfoundland the proviso simply was that they could fish on the "coast."

(5) The liberty to enter the other parts of the coast of Newfoundland and Canada to secure shelter, effect repairs, purchase wood, and obtain water, but for no other purpose whatever.

THE THREE-MILE RESTRICTION

In return for these concessions the United States renounced forever the right to fish within three marine miles of the coast of British North America, not included in the above, and agreed to be subject to such restrictions as might be necessary to prevent their abusing the privileges hereby reserved to them.

The effect of this treaty was that the Americans surrendered the inshore fisheries, except on certain coasts, and secured an unrestricted enjoyment of the deep-sea fisheries. It might be supposed that this would have put an end to all friction and promoted amity and good-will between the subjects of the two nations. But it did not. Within a year or two arose the famous "headland dispute," namely: Should the line,—three marine miles off,—follow the sinuosities of the coast and be drawn across the mouths of the bays where they are six miles wide, or should it be drawn from headland to headland, barring out foreigners from all inclosed "territorial" water, large or small? The British authorities, in Canada and Newfoundland, adopted the "headline" doctrine and excluded the Americans from even the Bay of Fundy, in Nova Scotia, Baie des Chaleurs, in Quebec, and Fortune Bay, in Newfoundland. Many difficulties and conflicts ensued, American vessels were seized almost every year, and many of them were confiscated for flagrant violations.

CONCESSIONS TO THE FRENCH

In considering the whole treaty question it is important to remember that, beginning at Cape St. John, the northern extremity of Nôtre Dame Bay, on the northeast coast of Newfoundland, passing northward to Belle Isle Strait and thence southward along the west coast of Cape Ray, the French already enjoyed a right of fishing in the coastwise waters and of landing and drying their catch on the seaboard, with a further proviso embodied in a declaration attached to the Treaty of Versailles, that British subjects were not to interfere with the French by their competition; in other words, making the French the predominant partner in the fisheries of that region. That this fact was recognized by the British and American negotiators of the treaty of 1818 is evident from their having phrased the concession to American subjects in that treaty as merely a concession to fish in the inshore waters of the west coast, but without any landing privilege such as was granted to them on the southwest coast, where the French had no rights.

The difficulties between Britain and France in regard to the region were not terminated until six years ago, when, in return for concessions in Morocco and West Africa, France agreed to abandon her claims to a lodgment on Newfoundland's western seaboard, and the few French fishing stations thereon were purchased by the British Government, France contenting herself with retaining the right to fish on the coastwise waters of the "French Shore," but without any right to land on the shore for any purpose.

THE ANGLO-FRANCO-AMERICAN SITUATION

The situation to-day with regard to this territory is that on the northeast coast of Newfoundland, from Cape St. John up to Cape Norman, British and French subjects have the right to fish within the three-mile limit, but British subjects alone have a right to dry their catch on the shore; on the west coast, from Cape Norman south to Cape Ray, British subjects, French subjects, and American subjects, all three have the right to fish in the coastwise waters, but only British subjects

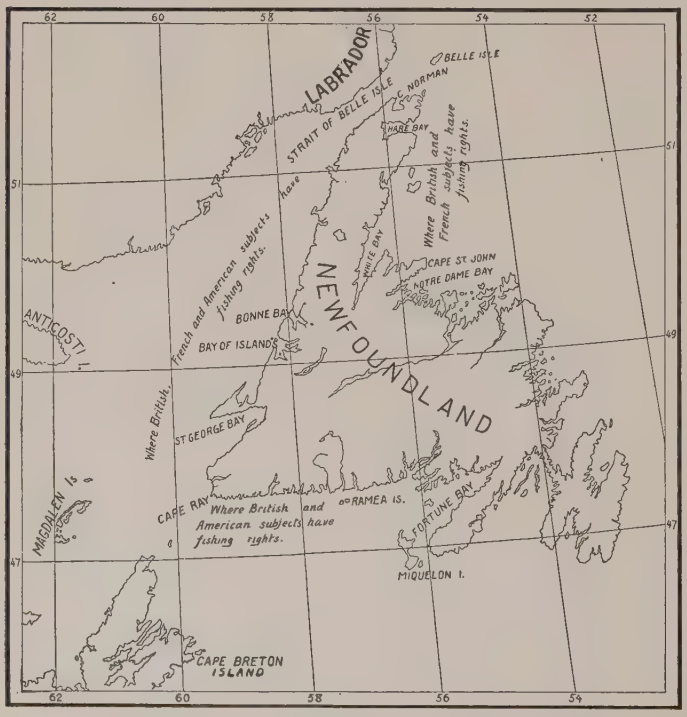
possess landing and drying rights; on the southwest coast, from Cape Ray east to Ramea Islands, British subjects and American subjects possess the right to fish, and the British subjects possess the further right to land and dry their catch anywhere on the seaboard, while American subjects are restricted in the exercise of this landing and drying privilege to the unsettled portions of this coast alone, which practically means that they are denied any access to the seaboard whatever, because it is all inhabited and because the present method of the conduct of the American fisheries in these northern waters makes the concession valueless to them.

FRICTION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND ENGLAND

During the ninety-two years that have elapsed since the signing of the treaty of 1818 this Atlantic Fisheries Question has proved one of constant friction to the two nations. Canada, as well as Newfoundland, has been a factor in the dispute because of American subjects enjoying the same fishing rights on the shores of the Magdalen Islands and on the section of Labrador west of Belle Isle Strait, both of which belong to Newfoundland, as they do on the west coast of Newfoundland and on the eastern section of Labrador, which belongs to her. Besides this, the presence of valuable food fishes in the Bay of Fundy and along the east coast of Nova Scotia has always proved an irresistible temptation to American fishing vessels to invade the three-mile limit and fish in the coastwise waters of the Dominion, where they have no treaty right to do so. As a consequence difficulties have from time to time arisen which have called for special agreements to cope with them.

THE RECIPROCITY OF 1854-'66

The first of these was the "Elgin-Marcy," or reciprocity treaty of 1854. This arrangement granted United States fishermen unrestricted access to British North American waters and shores to catch and cure fish, while United States waters and shores, north of latitude 36, were thrown open to Canadian and Newfoundland fishermen on the same terms. The American fishermen thus obtained the right to purchase bait and other supplies; to land and transship fish; to use the bays and harbors; to prepare, clean, pack, and dry fish, and to enjoy sundry commercial privileges. It being admitted that these concessions were of greater value than those the British subjects could enjoy in American waters, the United States granted free entry to its markets for many of the products of the British North American colonies. This treaty worked very advantageously to both parties, but the United States abrogated it in 1866 at the expiry of the twelve years for which it was originally negotiated.



THE FISHING GROUNDS OF NEWFOUNDLAND

(Showing the present legal treaty rights of British, French, and American fishermen)

THE HALIFAX AWARD OF 1877

It had effectually disposed of all pending difficulties, allayed friction between the two countries, and promoted a marked improvement in their trade, and its abrogation revived

all the unwelcome drawbacks to national comity. The situation was soon embittered by a renewal of the conflicts of the previous non-reciprocity period, and within five years a new treaty had to be negotiated, in 1871, known as the "Thornton-Fish," or "Washington" treaty. This dealt with several features of commerce and navigation, as well as the fisheries issue, but it is with the latter only that we are now concerned. The "fishery articles" revived those of the 1854 treaty, and the Americans offered free entry to United States markets for coal, salt, fish, and lumber, for a period of twelve years from the first of July, 1874, in return for access to the British North American markets. This offer was rejected, and then the United States agreed to an arbitration, to fix the sum, if any, which the United States should pay for the use of these fisheries during the period in question. This arbitration was held at Halifax, Nova Scotia, in 1877, when Sir A. T. Galt represented Great Britain, Hon. E. H. Kellogg represented the United States, and M. Maurice Delfosse, Belgian Minister at Washington, was umpire. It awarded Canada and Newfoundland $5,500,000, of which subsequently, by arrangement between themselves, Canada took four-fifths and Newfoundland the remainder.

NEWFOUNDLAND SEEKS A SEPARATE AGREEMENT

The fishery clauses of this treaty were abrogated by the United States in 1886, on the expiry of the twelve-year period, and immediately the old-time troubles were renewed. The seizure of American vessels threatened serious international difficulties, and propositions for yet another treaty were exchanged by the two nations. Newfoundland, now awakened to a realization of her own special advantages as a baiting and outfitting center, opened negotiations for a separate fisheries arrangement with the United States in 1887, when Ambassador Phelps intimated to Sir Ambrose Shea, then Newfoundland's delegate in London, that his government would cordially consider such a proposal. But the imperial cabinet declined to sanction the project for an independent compact for Newfoundland then, as plans were maturing for a reciprocity treaty including Canada as well.

THE CHAMBERLAIN-BAYARD TREATY

This instrument, known as the "Chamberlain-Bayard" treaty, was negotiated at Washington in 1888. Like its two predecessors, it provided for fisheries reciprocity between the United States on the one hand and Canada and Newfoundland on the other, but it was for no stipulated period, going into effect automatically on the United States removing the duty from fish and fish-oils and being nullified on her reviving these duties. It also permitted United States fishing vessels entering Canada or Newfoundland waters for shelter or repairs, to unload, reload, transship, or sell their cargoes, and to replenish their outfits. It further provided for the appointment of a mixed commission to delimit the bays on the coastline regarding which the United States by the treaty of 1818 renounced its fishing rights. The details agreed upon were such as to exclude the Americans from all bays ten miles wide at their mouth, and from certain specified ones from fifteen to twenty miles wide.

The United States Senate of the day being republican, and hostile to President Cleveland, rejected this treaty, but the plenipotentiaries, to prevent the prospect of a friction while the treaty was under discussion, had arranged a modus vivendi whereby the United States fishing vessels could, for two years, enter Canadian and Newfoundland waters and, by payment of an annual license fee of $1.50 per ship-ton, purchase bait and all supplies and outfits, transship their catch, and hire men for their crews.

NEWFOUNDLAND AND CANADA AT ODDS

Following upon the rejection of this draft treaty Newfoundland opened negotiations with Washington for a reciprocal fishery arrangement, and what has since become known as the "Bond-Blaine Convention" was concluded. It provided for the free admission of Newfoundland fish and crude minerals to the United States, in return for which American fishermen were to be granted free access to baiting and transshipping and other facilities in Newfoundland. Canada, not having been made a party to this arrangement, protested against the British Government ratifying it, on the ground that Canada being a sister colony and her people fellow-colonists having the same right to the enjoyment of the Newfoundland fisheries as the people of that colony, the latter could not barter away these advantages for concessions for her own people alone. The British Government thereupon decided to "pigeon-hole" the Bond-Blaine Convention for the time being, in order to give Canada an opportunity to effect a similar

arrangement; and this decision provoked a tariff war for a period between the two colonies, as Newfoundland bitterly resented Canada's action. Peace was, however, eventually restored, but for twelve years this Bond-Blaine compact lay moribund.

During all this period the modus vivendi of 1888 was continued by Newfoundland because she was hopeful of securing a reciprocal arrangement, and by Canada because she entertained similar hopes. "Pilgrimages to Washington" were made by various Canadian statesmen, and in 1898 an International Joint High Commission, headed by Lord Coleridge on the British side, and containing representatives of Canada and Newfoundland, and headed on the American side by Senator Fairbanks, wrestled with the problem at Quebec and at Washington, but with no result. Not until 1902 did Canada withdraw her embargo against the Newfoundland Convention, having by this time realized that any arrangement of a similar character for herself was impossible and, it may also have been, determining to make no more "pilgrimages" in quest of reciprocity. The mother colony, being now at liberty to assent to Newfoundland's endeavor to make a new arrangement, if it could succeed in so doing, the then Premier of the island negotiated the "Bond-Hay treaty" on the lines of the convention of 1890, but this instrument was "amended to death" by the American Senate when it came before that body in December of 1904 for ratification.

The temporary arrangement, or modus vivendi, it may be explained here, is continued by Canada to the present day, but in the Newfoundland legislature in the session of 1905, following upon the action of the American Senate in stifling the Bond-Hay convention, Premier Bond introduced a measure to abrogate it and to give effect to a new policy with regard to American fishermen and their operations in colonial waters. He determined upon their absolute exclusion from all intercourse with the sections of the coast where they possessed no treaty rights and the limitation of them on the coast where they did possess such liberties strictly to the letter of the treaty as interpreted by him, which interpretation of the convention of 1818 he maintained was the correct one.

THE WINTER HERRING FISHERY,—AMERICAN SHIPS

The whole difficulty which is now being dealt with at The Hague arises from the prosecution by the Americans of the so-called winter herring fishery on the west or treaty coast of Newfoundland, primarily at Bay of Islands and secondarily at Bonne Bay, some twenty miles north. This fishery begins in October and lasts until the freezing of the inlets compels the vessels to leave. In the early part of the season, before frosts set in, the herrings are salted in bulk in the holds of the vessels, but later they are frozen by being exposed on platforms on the shore or above the vessels' decks and when thoroughly congealed are thrown into the holds in the same way.

These herrings, whether salted or frozen, are admitted into the United States free of duty when they are brought there in American bottoms, but when carried in British vessels are required to pay a heavy duty. The theory underlying their free entry when carried in American bottoms is that they are the produce of the American fisheries, but, as a matter of fact, they are not, strictly speaking, taken by the American vessels or their crews at all. The practice for fifty years past has been for American vessels to visit the coast and purchase cargoes of these herrings from resident fishermen, who actually caught them and sold them to the American crafts as a matter of ordinary commerce. It would not pay American vessels to bring to the coast the number of men required to procure cargoes for them, or the appliances,—boats, nets, and other gear,—necessary in carrying on the fishery, and the trading, rather than the fishing venture, proved mutually advantageous, for the Americans bought the fish at favorable terms and sold them in their home market, while the Newfoundlanders secured a ready cash equivalent for the fruits of their labor from day to day,—the industry being worth to the colonists about $250,000 annually for many years past.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND NEWFOUNDLAND

Premier Bond's new enactment forbade the sale of bait fishes,—herrings being largely used as bait,—to Americans, forbade American vessels to ship crews in Newfoundland waters, and forbade local fishermen to engage on board such vessels. But the augmenting of the crews of the American vessels in this fashion was secured in that year by an evasion of the law, local fishermen going three miles from the coast, boarding American vessels there and then returning into territorial waters as members of the crews, having

signed the ships' articles while beyond the three-mile limit. In 1906 Premier Bond introduced another bill forbidding colonists to leave territorial waters for any such purpose and imposing confiscation on American vessels found in Colonial waters with any persons on board not inhabitants of the United States; but the imperial government refused approval to this measure, while American fishermen, on their part, declined to enter at the Colonial custom-houses, to pay light dues, to abstain from fishing on Sundays, or to be bound by Colonial laws prohibiting the use of destructive fishing instruments known as purse seines; and the American State Department forwarded vigorous messages of protest to the imperial government against the unfriendly attitude of the Newfoundland ministry, demanding, moreover, that United States subjects be protected in the exercise of the treaty rights granted to them in 1818 and repudiating vigorously Premier Bond's construction of this instrument.

As a result of this embroilment the British Government passed an imperial rescript under a Georgian statute enacted by the British Parliament in 1819 to provide for the carrying out of the treaty of 1818, which rescript over-rode the Colonial enactment and the enforcement of the existing Colonial fishery laws by the Colonial ministry and placed the settlement of all questions arising between Colonial and American fishermen in the hands of the British naval commodore on the station. A modus vivendi was likewise arranged between the two governments without reference to Newfoundland whereby the status quo ante was continued for that season. The Bond ministry bitterly protested against this procedure as a virtual abrogation of the colony's charter of self-government, but the imperial cabinet proposed an amicable adjustment of the matter if possible.

THE MATTER REFERRED TO THE HAGUE TRIBUNAL

At the imperial conference at London in 1907 Sir Robert Bond raised this question in the hope of securing a declaration from the premiers of the other self-governing colonies in support of his views, but as the discussion on the matter was a secret one nothing is known with certainty as to what occurred. It is surmised, however, that the then Secretary for the Colonies, Lord Elgin, made it clear that the imperial government was not prepared to risk any rupture of the existing friendly relations with the United States in order to actively support Sir Robert Bond's contentions with regard to the verbiage of the treaty of 1818, and soon afterwards it was announced that a reference of the whole question to the Hague Tribunal had been decided upon by the several parties interested, Canada agreeing to enter into the arbitration with Newfoundland, though the issue was not an acute one between that colony and the American Republic. Accordingly the necessary steps were taken to provide for the constitution of the arbitral tribunal, the preparation of the respective cases, and the submission of the whole matter to the adjudication of the eminent jurists who have been selected to pronounce upon the issues in dispute.*

Meanwhile Sir Edward Morris, who had been Sir Robert Bond's first lieutenant and the Attorney-General in his cabinet, had broken from him, and having assumed the leadership of the opposition party in Newfoundland decisively defeated the Bond administration in the two spectacular general elections which occurred here,—the first in November, 1908, when each side carried eighteen seats, and the second in May, 1909, when Morris carried twenty-six and Bond only ten. The championing of Newfoundland's case thus fell to Sir Edward Morris.

POINTS TO BE DECIDED

The questions involved are varied and important. The liberties conferred by the treaty of 1818 were ceded to the "inhabitants" of the United States. The first point to be decided is what is meant by the word "inhabitants." Can vessels flying the American flag employ fishermen not alone residing in the United States, but who may be shipped in Canadian ports or on the high seas off the Newfoundland seaboard, beyond

* The arbitrators who will deal with the matter at The Hague are Professor Lammasch (Austria), Dr. Drago (Argentina), Johnheer Lohman (Netherlands), Sir Charles FitzPatrick (Great Britain), and Judge George Gray (United States).

The counsel in the case, on behalf of the United States, are Chandler P. Anderson, of New York, agent; Hon. Elihu Root, Senator from New York; Hon. George Turner, of Spokane, Wash., former Senator and member of the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal; Hon. Samuel J. Elder, of Boston, Mass.; Dr. James Brown Scott, Solicitor of the State Department; Hon. Charles B. Warren, of Detroit, Mich., and Hon. Robert Lansing, of Watertown, N. Y.

The counsel on behalf of Great Britain are Hon. A. B. Aylesworth, Minister of Justice of Canada, agent; Right Hon. Sir William Robinson, K.C., Attorney-General for England; Right Hon. Sir Robert Finly, K.C., former Attorney-General for England; Sir H. Erle Richards, K.C., of England; John S. Ewart, K.C., of Canada; George W. Shepley, K.C., of Canada; W. N. Tilley, of Canada; Hon. Sir Edward Morris, K.C., Premier of Newfoundland; Hon. Sir James Winter, K.C., former Attorney-General of Newfoundland, and Hon. D. Morison, K.C., Attorney-General of Newfoundland.

territorial jurisdiction? Newfoundland holds that none but genuine "inhabitants" of the republic residing in that country and shipped at an American port can be employed, while America takes the position that the flag covers all who may be on board, and that if a ship has her proper papers it is not within the competence of the British or Colonial governments to inquire into the nationality of those who may make up her crew.

The second point that arises is what is meant by the liberty to take fish "in common" with British subjects. Does it give the Americans the same rights in every respect as are enjoyed by the colonists, and if so, does it render Americans liable to the same obligations as are imposed upon British subjects by the Colonial fishery laws? In other words, are American fishing vessels and their crews, operating in Newfoundland waters, bound by the local regulations that may be made from year to year by the island Parliament? Newfoundland contends that they are so bound, but the United States maintains that any such regulations must be by joint agreement, dictated solely with the object of preserving the fisheries, as if the colony were conceded the right to make regulations of itself, it could so frame them as to destroy the value of the liberties granted to American subjects by treaty.

The third question arising is as to whether inhabitants of the United States are required to report at the custom-houses, pay light or other duties, or be subject to any similar regulations. Newfoundland contends that for the maintenance of her rights of sovereignty, the prevention of smuggling, and the carrying out of ordinary jurisdictional powers she is entitled to require that vessels of every nationality entering her waters must report at custom-houses and, as they participate in the benefits of her lighthouses and other service, should pay light and harbor and similar dues, whereas the United States maintains that American fishing vessels are under no such obligations.

The fourth question is as to where the three marine miles off the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors, mentioned in the treaty of 1818, are to be measured from. This raises once more the whole "headland" question, on which there will doubtless now be a definite pronouncement. Britain, as a general thing, maintains that territorial jurisdiction extends seaward for three miles from a line drawn from the outer headlands, no matter how wide the bay that is inclosed may be, and under the exercise of this regulation in bygone days American fishing vessels were seized for fishing in the Bay of Fundy, which is sixty miles across. The United States, on the other hand, maintains that the three-mile limit should follow the sinuosities of the coast, though in actual practice American authorities did not apply this construction to Boston, New York, and Delaware bays, or other wide inlets on the Atlantic coast of their own country.

The fifth question involved is whether Americans have the right to take fish in the bays, harbors, and creeks of Newfoundland and the Magdalen Islands, as they admittedly have on the coast of Labrador. Newfoundland maintains that they have not, on the ground that the differing phraseology implies a difference in the liberties conceded, whereas the United States contends that the admitted practice since the treaty of 1818 was negotiated has been for Americans to fish in these inlets.

Such is the international problem that presents itself for solution at The Hague just now, and its determination will remove the last serious issue that exists between Great Britain and the United States. It is, of course, impossible to forecast what the decision will be, but none can doubt that it will be such that in the not distant future it will be possible for the several parties interested to resume operations on a friendly basis and, perhaps, pave the way for reciprocal concessions that will result to mutual profit and advantage.

THE FARMER'S PROFITS AND THE SPECULATION IN LAND

BY ROBERT S. LANIER

We find a striking comparison between prices of common necessaries in Detroit, Mich., and Windsor, Ontario, "separated by a half mile of river and a thousand miles of tariff." The figures show that agricultural staples (wheat, corn, hay) are 11 to 30 per cent. higher in Detroit, while eggs, butter, and cheese are 24 to 43 per cent. higher, pork and beef-cuts 54 to 60 per cent., and clothing 67 per cent. in excess.

ONE of these "high-price" pieces from the newspaper acts like a bomb if projected into a mixed assemblage; the fragments of discussion fly to the four quarters.

Just one result, however, of any bomb explosion is certain and definite. That is the creation of noise. So the din of the "higher-cost-of-living" controversy has given the American farming business a sensational advertising boom.

Working people and clerks and school teachers know well enough that their fixed wages and salaries do not fetch two-thirds as much from the grocer, the butcher, and the clothier as they did ten years ago.

"It is the tariff privileged trusts that make the extra money," declare spokesmen of the people, like Senators Cummins and Dolliver, of Iowa; and they propose to attack such privilege, whether in their own Republican party or elsewhere.

"No," answer the tariff's friends, "it is the farmer who is profiting at the expense of the rest of us." They dwell upon the increase of no less than 87 per cent. in the price of farm products and farm animals during the past thirteen years, while commodities in general have been marked up only 23 per cent.

The farmer himself may eloquently point to the $1.60 which he pays this year for the labor that a decade ago would have cost him only a dollar. But he finds himself the center of interest of folks who care little for politics, but much for profits.

With the world calling for bread, with wheat $1 a bushel, and with American exports of cereals last year inferior to those of ten years before by no less than 251 per cent., what investment can equal wheat lands?

Old-timers can scarcely believe the figures that show American *imports* last year of more than 8,000,000 bushels of potatoes, of 3,355,000 bushels of dried peas and beans, and 6,677,000 bushels of oats. Only ½ of 1 per cent. more on the bushel price of wheat would have brought imports of that fundamental American crop from England, in spite of our duty of 25 cents per bushel!

So there has been a scramble for the fertile farms of the Middle West that has put their price up 150 per cent. within ten years. More recently, there has been a rush to borrow money at these high values with which to buy more land that has literally swamped the banks, trust and life insurance companies, and other large lenders on farm mortgage.

One company, with more than one hundred million dollars loaned to Middle Western farmers, reports that "the average amount of the individual loan has increased from $1500 in the year 1900 to $2300 in the year 1909." Another has been asked to lend more than a million dollars a month so far this year,—twice as much as in 1909.

How large the movement has grown appears from the following table of the present loans of two life insurance companies,—the Northwestern Mutual of Milwaukee and the Union Central of Cincinnati,—that specialize in farm mortgages:

Illinois	$27,512,000.00
Missouri	23,913,000.00
Iowa	22,452,000.00
Minnesota	16,397,000.00
Ohio	13,467,000.00
Indiana	11,610,000.00
Washington	5,987,000.00
Wisconsin	5,549,000.00
South Dakota	6,067,000.00
Kansas	11,680,000.00
Nebraska	11,073,000.00
Michigan	3,690,000.00
Colorado	4,523,000.00
Kentucky	3,339,000.00
Tennessee	4,460,000.00
North Dakota	6,756,000.00
New York	1,530,000.00
Georgia	1,515,000.00
Oregon	812,000.00
California	771,000.00
Texas	4,782,000.00
North Carolina	143,000.00
Utah	351,000.00
	$188,379,000.00

One Nebraska banker wrote to a number of neighboring bankers asking in what the prosperous farmers were investing their sur-

plus. The answers told of interest in only one kind of stocks,—bank stocks. The only bonds were municipals. However, all reported that the farmers were buying land. And 60 per cent., giving their requested opinion as to the most desirable investment for a farmer, advised the purchase of more land.

The farming business, with its enormous profits real and supposed, is figuring in the public mind this year as did the railroad mergers of Harriman and others before the 1907 panic and the "industrial" mergers that preceded the financial troubles of 1903.

Now, without discussing at all whether at the present time the high prices of farming land involve as much hysteria and unwise borrowing as Union Pacific stock did before its price was cut in half during 1907, or "Steel Common" before it dropped from 55 to 8⅜ in 1904, one may still consider the peculiar danger which land inflation holds, in its very nature, as compared to speculation in stocks and bonds.

A LAND BOOM THE MOST DANGEROUS

A thousand-dollar farm mortgage may be twice as sound as a given thousand-dollar railroad bond. And a deed to ten good wheat acres may have three times the intrinsic value of ten shares of a certain railroad stock. But the bond or stock can be sold in a hurry at times when the mortgage or the land cannot, —times when money rates are rising and markets are falling.

When a stock boom collapses, as in 1907, enormous transactions take place. The community gets the money as soon as prices sink low enough to offer the "bargains" that appeal to foreign and thrifty home investors.

But the collapse of a land boom is attended by an intense quiet. Comparatively speaking, there are no sales at all. It may be a matter of years before values catch up to prices. It took months to cure '07, but years to cure '93.

NO "SHORT SELLING"

Again: There is no "short selling," as with stocks and bonds and even food products and cotton, to keep a land boom down once it reaches the point of a craze. It may be immoral for a man to sell what he hasn't got. But it is mighty useful, as the great students of economics whose works are accepted in this country and abroad all agree, to allow those of cynical mind and cold blood to express their opinions in cold cash. Such expression is wonderfully cooling to a speculative fever, be it in shares or in short ribs.

A repetition of these elementary principles will seem less unnecessary when one considers that for half a generation there has been steady growth in the real value of the farms between the Alleghanies and the Rockies, while during this period stock exchange manias and collapses have become familiar.

FOURTEEN DOLLARS MORE "CHARGES" PER FAMILY PER YEAR

A few hundred millions in farming land, more or less, would be of little concern to bankers at ordinary times. But the past year has been anything but ordinary in regard to the rush of loose cash into the form of fixed charges,—buildings and railroads and private and public improvements in general, or else the stocks and bonds and notes and mortgages that represent them.

In the United States alone more than nine billion dollars have gone into such fixed forms since 1906. Figuring interest at only 4 per cent., here is an additional yearly interest charge of $14 per average family, against a total income of said family of less than one thousand dollars.

Then take a typical world stock market,—say London. During the first four months of this year there were new stocks, bonds, and notes offered to the public through this market with face value of no less than *three-quarters of a billion dollars.*

This sum is more than twice the average. It breaks all previous records. It has gone all over the world. Of the portion furnished in the first quarter of the year, for instance, no less than $46,000,000 was "fixed" in the shape of "foreign" government bonds, $80,000,000 in "foreign" railways, $70,000,000 in bonds of the British colonies over-seas, and $30,000,000 in rubber companies of the Far East.

IS THERE ENOUGH MONEY IN THE WORLD?

That is why international financiers are asking so many questions about the habits, temperaments, and affairs of American farmers. They want to know how much of the unprecedented sums lately earned and borrowed by said farmers has gone into actual development of new lands and scientific improvement of old ones,—and how much has gone to feed a possible land craze.

On such a question the inquirer finds little help from most of the financial press of our financial center,—New York. When that

nervous and intense community known as "Wall Street" has a scare, it has a good one. Some of the brokers' market letters, and so on, warning against "the Western farming land craze," "the enormous land speculation by persons who have no thought of cultivating," "far exceeding the greatest speculation in securities ever witnessed in New York,"—proceed from writers whose extreme Western limit of personal observation can safely be placed at Jersey City.

Much "nearer production" are the bankers centering in St. Louis, Kansas City, and Chicago. These financiers, "close to the soil," are more confident that the Middle Western lands are worth much more than the amounts being borrowed on them. Even here, however, the qualification is heard, "provided we don't have two or three bad crop years in succession."

But the most helpful opinion comes from business men like the presidents of some of the old-line life insurance companies who have lent many millions on farm mortgages in this section, but whose business is national and whose wide range of investments has made them students of money movements all over the world.

A number of such observers, with experiences of the longest and viewpoints of the widest, have been kind enough, upon request, to picture the situation for the benefit of the readers of the REVIEW. Quotations follow.

"DOLLAR WHEAT, TEN-CENT HOGS, AND SIXTY-CENT CORN"

The composite picture shows a foundation of actual, steady increase in the farmer's income sufficient to justify a very sizable boom. In this connection it reveals an opportunity for the private investor that has not existed for many years. But the movement from old lands to new will take a lot of financing. And even more serious is the popularity of buying new land without any intention of "moving" at all.

The shortest sentence that describes the farmer's real strength has been furnished to the REVIEW by Charles M. Harger, of Abilene, Kan., one of the closest students of Kansas and Nebraska conditions. He writes: "Dollar wheat, 10-cent hogs, and 60-cent corn are primarily the reason for high prices of land"; and he adds: "Nothing except national business disaster can make any great slump in Western land values, providing, of course, the rain continues to fall and the sun to shine."

In similar vein, an officer of an insurance company whose farm mortgage loans aggregate nearly $30,000,000, mostly in Missouri, Indiana, Kansas, and in neighboring States, believes that the very decided increase recently in farming land values is "attributable to the high prices of farm products, the more scientific methods employed by farmers, and the demand for farms because of the growth in population."

To what extent agricultural profits have run is plain to any traveler through the corn and wheat country. One picturesque sign is the automobile; 76,000 are estimated to be owned by farmers, mostly Middle Westerners. Kansas farmers alone spent $3,200,000 for automobiles last year. Half of the 10,000 automobiles owned in Iowa belong to farmers.

Or the traveler's eyes can be opened by visiting the country towns, especially their stores. Here, where but a decade ago would have been found the barest necessities only, are shining and busy emporiums of all the latest improvements and luxuries of civilization, from mission furniture and natty brass bedsteads to the latest player-pianos and phonograph-records.

THE INVESTOR'S INNINGS

One unmixed blessing of the competition for money falls upon the investor. He can get to-day 5½ to 6 per cent. on the fattest farms and best kept implements and buildings that a couple of years ago would have yielded him only 4½ to 5 per cent. Even the farmer of high and long credit, whose corn, wheat, and cattle are the pride of his county, must pay more for his money to-day. He is competing with hundreds of thousands of new borrowers, besides the regular borrowers who are expanding into new fields.

The smallest investor who wishes to share in the profits of this situation can very well apply to his few thousands or hundreds even the methods and principles that some of the old-line life insurance companies have worked out for their many millions.

Before us is the sixtieth annual report of the "National Life," Montpelier, Vt., which states that "the company is completing eleven years of experience with this class of investments and continues to find them absolutely safe, very profitable, and in all respects satisfactory. During that period it has bought over thirty millions of such mortgages, of which all but $16,787,186.33 have been paid off, and on this entire investment

there has not been lost a dollar of either principal or interest and not an acre of land acquired."

But one finds that the company's total investment, even in this "absolutely safe" and "very profitable" form of security, is little more than one-third its total assets. That is one memorandum for the private investor. Whether he keeps the other two-thirds or so of his capital mostly in municipal bonds as this company does, or whether he finds the savings bank more convenient and about as profitable, he should take care that plenty of his money is "negotiable,"—possessing quick convertibility into cash. This quality is foreign to the scheme of the three or five year farm mortgage, which should do no more than promise to pay so much interest every year and money back in full when due. And, of course, it is too individual an investment to be traded in by dealers as they trade in railroad securities.

Secondly, the investor can learn from the life insurance companies' many years of experience how to tell the agents that understand the farm loaning art. To-day the investor can find a loan dealer in or near any progressive farm district who can show credentials of many years' standing from regular clients, —the banks, trusts and insurance companies, and the like. Many such brokers have equally good equipment and records for serving private investors at a distance with loans small and great, accompanied by assurance that taxes, repairs, and insurance and all legal details will be carefully watched by the dealer himself as a part of the contract.

As a business proposition the successful Middle Western farm is in a different class now from fifteen years ago. The officials of federal and State agricultural departments have taught soil conservation to good purpose. Even lands that had been wastefully "cropped out" as to wheat have been permanently saved as rich producers of corn.

PURCHASING THE NEIGHBOR'S LAND

But when I repeat that the approved mortgage agents are those who restrict their loans to the successful farmers who intend themselves to "work" the land that secures the loans, I have introduced the third division of the subject,—namely, the craze for more land, at any price and under any circumstances, which has affected the less responsible section of the agricultural community.

"Speaking in a general way," writes the mortgage officer of one of the great lending companies, "it seems as though about every other farmer through the Middle West had become possessed with the idea that it was necessary for him to purchase his neighbor's land, at whatever cost, and desired to borrow every dollar that he could to assist in the payment therefor."

From experience of more than a generation in lending several millions a year on farm mortgages, the officers of this company have deemed it best to keep borrowers waiting just at present. "We do consider that this speculation in farm lands, or land boom, if it amounts to that, has gone too far."

Much "human interest" enters into another report, that of a Nebraska dealer of 30 years' experience, one whose loans and transactions add up into many millions. He has found the incentive to such speculation in a certain class of farmers to be *despair*.

"That is, the farmer who, having worked for twenty or thirty years without being able to reduce his mortgage indebtedness from products of the farm, increases the mortgage and plunges into speculation. During the last year I have, time and again, heard a farmer say that if he had just borrowed money and bought the farm adjoining he would have made more money in the advance of price in the land purchased in one year than he and his family, by hard work, had been able to make in twenty-five years."

Last year this dealer concluded that matters had gone far enough, and closed out his real estate interest, which was very large. He remarked at the time that he had sold 10,000 or 12,000 acres of his own land, with much more for other people, and had closely watched their sale, as well as sales of other land that had come to his attention. "During all that time I never heard a vendor or vendee or the agent negotiating the sale, in any single instance, refer to or make any mention of the earning capacity of the land, —the talk all being: 'This land sold for such a price so many years ago, still more the year later, still more the next year,' etc., and ending up by saying: 'The boom is just begun.'"

The excessive demands for loans upon one of the "Big Three" life insurance companies come from eastern Kansas and Nebraska and central Oklahoma and are due, as far as the insurance company people can discover, to "the unusually large number of sales made to investors from Illinois and Iowa."

In the experience of an officer of one of the

largest Northwestern savings banks, part of the movement in the Northwest Mississippi Valley results "from a process which is going on, occasioned by Illinois and Iowa farmers buying in Minnesota and the Dakotas and, in turn, the Dakota farmers buying in Montana and Canada. From all that I can learn, the movement into Montana is larger than that into Canada this year."

The movement to Canada involved no less than 12,000 Americans in the year ending March 1. Practically all were the best type of Middle Western agriculturalists who had sold out their farms and were carrying off from $1000 to $5000 apiece to start a new career on Canadian Government land.

Here is a minimum loss of $12,000,000 in a year,—probably several times that much. Moreover, most of the farms, it appears, were sold on the basis of the unheard-of high prices for last year's crops.

HALF A BILLION DOLLARS TO CANADA

These figures were reported by Commissioner-General of Immigration Keefe on the 12th of April. The total of this emigration of American farmers to Canada since March 31, 1897, was put at 520,830. At the minimum of $1000 apiece, here is *half a billion dollars* taken away,—mostly in gold, it is believed.

The greatest loss came from North Dakota, 3464 heads of families; Minnesota, 1741; South Dakota, 522; Michigan, 514; Washington, 510; Wisconsin, 477; Iowa, 430; Illinois, 296; Montana, 184.

Optimistic reports come from authorities in the localities to which this actual movement of new farm investors has been tending. One of the largest lending institutions in Minneapolis, for instance, reports that "lands in Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota have not reached their highest value. With equal confidence, an Oklahoma official with special facilities for observing calculates that farm lands throughout Oklahoma "have not yet reached the basis of values that obtained throughout Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, and other Western and Middle Western States by 50 or 75 per cent."

The farmer who braves the hardships and annoyances of a raw section, who builds empires out of prairies, can certainly not be esteemed a "danger." But even the admirers of the American pioneer spirit cannot escape the fact that a lot of money is being locked up, fixed, withdrawn from circulation. Any one who enjoys the confidence of any of the financial minds whose scope and interests are truly national knows that they are taking this flow of capital into new lands very seriously in estimating whether there is "enough money in the world."

THE OUTRIGHT SPECULATION

The fourth phase,—the outright farm speculation, the purchase of agricultural lands by those who cannot or will not cultivate and develop them,—can justify itself, like every other form of speculation, only by the successful event.

One man who has supervised the loaning of hundreds of millions to farmers in this territory, and whose advices are naturally of the best, was pretty plain-spoken in his letter to the REVIEW:

"A great many farmers all over the country, I am told, have sold their farms located in the United States, and particularly in the Middle West, and have bought lands in the Dominion of Canada and located there. Another feature of the proposition lies in the fact, if I am correctly informed, that a great many other farmers have borrowed money on their farms in the central and Middle West, and either loaned the money so borrowed to others (at an advanced rate of interest above what they agree to pay) to purchase land in Canada or have purchased land themselves with the money so borrowed in the Dominion of Canada, expecting to sell such lands at an advanced price and without *improving or locating upon it.*

"These conditions, all combined, have stimulated sales and created an unhealthy market, which has enabled speculators, and, in fact, a great many farmers, to dispose of their lands at prices considerably above their real value, and the result will be that should any unfavorable conditions arise, such as short crops or lower prices in farm products, that fact in itself would, without doubt, bring about considerable reductions in farm values all over the country, and so will any other unfavorable conditions that may enter into the problem. I firmly believe that the present values of all farm lands, especially in the Middle West and some of the Southern and Southwestern territory, will suffer a very considerable depreciation in values as now fixed within a comparatively short time."

"Enormous sums have gone away from the Corn Belt (between the Alleghanies and about the center of Nebraska or Kansas)," writes an extensive dealer in Missouri Val-

ley real estate, with a perspective of many years. "Much of this outside buying is speculation, and income is not considered, though the Canadian investment, in considerable part, is for investment and farming.

"In the large Panhandle district and in the vast territory between the Corn Belt and the Rockies there has been an enormous speculative movement.

"It is a bold man who asserts that this vast empire of semi-arid or semi-humid land will not make interest on present values. I think it is quite likely some day to make interest on much larger values, but that is not yet proven; so far, most of it is speculative."

Typical are reports from Kansas City to the effect that sales of raw land 300 miles away, not bearing crops at all, have been made at $100 an acre or more on very thin financial margin, and to an extent heretofore unprecedented in the Southwest.

The president of a Wichita institution finds many of his depositors withdrawing money for the purchase of raw lands as far as New Mexico. "A little too much overtrading in real estate speculation," he reports.

ENTER THE "GET-RICH-QUICK" MAN

Moreover, there has naturally arisen an imitation or perversion of the real farming prosperity by the "get-rich-quick" man. He saw his opportunity with the big "advertising" of high prices for crops supplied by the national and State legislatures and committees of investigation into the high cost of living. Like an echo, there have sprung up the flaunting prospectuses and newspaper and magazine advertisements of various promoters crying the movement away from the city "to land, liberty, and a living." A few of these projects are sound. But many invite the settlers to deserts in the Southwest or swamps along the Gulf Coast that will not be ready for happy human habitation for a long time. A particularly vicious feature of this particular boom is the offer to "do your farming for you," made by apparently unselfish promoters, who prove, upon investigation, to have no financial responsibility and no farming experience whatever.

Indeed the Department of Agriculture at Washington recently gave warning against such schemes. It found vast tracts of almost pure sand, left after the cutting off of pine trees, being advertised as the finest farming lands; undrained swamps described as priceless possessions, and special inducements offered to purchasers in the shape of wonderful hybrid berries (which later turned out to have little or no value), or the setting out of thousands of slips or fruit tree cuttings on land unfit to produce anything better than sage-brush.

Now there can be no escape from the danger of any land speculation on a large scale which does not *immediately increase production of crops* in return for the money locked up.

That reliable magazine of special interest in this field, *Bonds and Mortgages,* although it believes that, on the whole, the "Western farmer is well within the safety line of borrowing," considers "the correct view" to be as follows:

"But the Westerner should remember that there may come hot winds and light yields again, and he ought, in these days of thrift and gain, to make preparation for the time of such future. This he cannot do by increasing his debts, even though the security increases in value. Values may not maintain and creditors become insistent. To this extent the increasing volume of mortgages is a danger,—though for the present it may indicate intelligent business methods."

WHAT EVERY CITIZEN CAN DO

The work of discrimination should not be left to the great insurance companies and banks, which, generally speaking, are doing all they can. Every citizen can participate. If he is an investor he can insist that his loans on farm mortgages be placed only through those agents who have proved they are conservative and will confide his money only to the "solid" class of farmers,—those who intend to make an immediate return to the community in the shape of more crops.

And all public officers and citizens of influence acquainted with farmers who seek fortune in pastures new would do well to ponder over this suggestion made to the REVIEW by Mr. N. F. Hawley, the Minneapolis banker:

"I would like to say that Eastern land companies or Southern and Eastern States might, with profit, spend money in advertising and inducing Western farmers, with their Western methods, to return to Eastern and Southern soil, if it can be demonstrated that markets and conditions there would afford a profit and an attractive environment to the Western farmer. This policy might steady, in a wholesome way, prices in the West, and at the same time be a boon to the Southern and Eastern country."

GETTING TOGETHER FOR MISSIONS

BY THE REV. W. S. RAINSFORD, D.D.

THE third great creed of the Christian church, that creed which bears the name of the opponent and final conqueror of Arianism,—Athanasius, defined and limited for ages the missionary activities of Christianity: "Whosoever will be saved, before all things it is necessary that he should hold the Catholic faith; which faith, except every one do keep whole and undefiled, without doubt he shall perish everlastingly. This is the Catholic faith; which except a man believe faithfully he cannot be saved." Under such a banner the missionaries of the succeeding centuries went forth. It was an age of creeds, and they were sure of theirs.

It is a mere truism to say that the form religious movements take depends on, is modified and molded by, the environment in which they are cast. The laws that control and direct human progress in all its branches are everywhere the same. Grecian philosophy had won to itself the world of human thought in the fourth century. It could and did assimilate what was best in man's thinking in those times. It could and did reject most of what was unworthy and crude. It received Christianity from the unphilosophic Jew, and, doing so, as a matter of necessity, profoundly changed it. As Jesus and his apostles taught, "the common people heard them gladly," and but few others were interested in the new and obscure religion.

As the great creed-makers of the fourth century stood forth in the schools of the world to proclaim Christ, they stood, as they had to stand (or they would not have had even a hearing for their cause) as the exponents of a subtle and profound religious philosophy; that claimed rightly to include within its bounds all the known wisdom, all the sane aspiration, of this age. Thus it necessarily came to pass that the religion the late centuries accepted as Christian was in many respects a very different religion from that which the Master proclaimed by the blue waters of Galilee. Yet the belief of the fourth century was truly rooted in the facts, and hopes, and beliefs of the first. The sower had gone forth to sow his seed,—a little mustard seed only. And now, as He had foretold, it had become a great tree, in whose branches strange birds sometimes builded. Yet was the root the same.

We are only beginning to study history today. The science of comparative religions is yet in its infancy. But now we can begin to know the "why" and the "how" of some of the changes that have passed over our religion; and even if we cannot do this, we can at least see that immensely important changes have passed on it; and thus are, or should be, prepared to recognize that further change must yet mark its progress, if in any true sense it is to become the religion of the whole world. The Master Sower it was who taught us that the seed He placed in the life of man so long ago is to keep on growing till the final harvest day.

Athanasius, his predecessors and disciples labored greatly to fit the faith they held dear to the need of their own time. They were, like ourselves, men often moved by passion and by prejudice. But that they wrought wisely and well is abundantly proved by the results they obtained. In the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries an immense band of reformers, many of them now quite forgotten, did the same. If the thinking world is still more doubtful of the work than of that which the creed-maker's age produced the reason is that the latter age has retreated into the golden mists of the half-known past, and we cannot criticise its apostles and martyrs as we can those of a later day. Some cannot bring themselves to admit that the reformers did well by their day and generation. Yet surely the persistent vitality of religion among those nations where the reform movement won out is an argument in their favor hard to gainsay.

If many well-informed Christian men are still sadly doubtful of the gain to religion of the reformation upheaval, is it any wonder that men still regard with dismay the upheavals of our own time? In such a time as this, when new knowledge floods the world, little can be taken for granted, all must be tested and tried. It is a time of shaking, of removing,—a time described and welcomed by the great "Unknown" who wrote the Epistle to the Hebrews, when he says, "The removing of those things that are shaken, as

of things that are made, that the things that cannot be shaken may remain."

Speaking generally, the reformers scarcely touched the creeds. Indeed, they were on occasion prepared to add to their numbers and stringency. They refused the additions of later medievalism. They rebelled against ecclesiastical tyranny. But such a sentence as "Whoso will be saved must thus think of the Trinity" troubled them not at all. Their age was not ours. Their doubts trouble us but little. Yet the hardiest of us surely would not dare to venture on new creed-making. We hold to our creeds, but not as our fathers held to them. They are to us the best statements we can find of truths which from their nature are incapable of complete and satisfactory statement. We are imperfect beings; our powers of expression by word of mouth are even more limited than we are ourselves. These creedal truths touch on the infinities. How can the finite define the infinite? As definitions they are an impossibility. So while we hold to our creeds as precious from a thousand associations in their long past, while we rightly value them as the heirlooms of the holy, the wise, and the strong, to whose wisdom, self sacrifice, and courage we largely owe what is best in ourselves, we no longer thrust our creeds forth in the faces of our fellows, demanding that they must be accepted as a condition to marching side by side with us on life's highway of endeavor.

Now what I want to say is this: Since ours is no creed-making age, another basis for common action must be found. The fact that in other times good men, when they met to lay plans for some work that had to be done, began by outlining a Westminster Confession, a Scotch Covenant, or even an Evangelical Alliance platform in no way justifies us in an attempt to imitate them. If it is objected that "all the Christian centuries have so acted,"—well, we cannot so act. We know, we feel that we cannot. If religion, the most real thing in life, is to go the way of the life of our time, is to-day to obey the overwhelming influence toward association that rules compellingly everywhere, then some gathering ground for Christians other than the platform of creed must be found.

I believe that the Laymen's Missionary Movement may at least point the way to such a meeting ground. If this is so, the future may call it blessed. The men who are binding themselves together in the movement say: "The churches we belong to and love loyally have wrangled on their confessions of faith for ages. If we get talking about our creeds, we may wrangle, too. Christian living we all believe in. Of Christian work there is an immensity to do. We must act more together if we are to accomplish anything. Association is one of the notes of our time. Other forces in the world are associating,—Christians alone are hanging back. The more we try to work together, the more we find we like it. We understand each other better. We accomplish more. We save strength and money. We will keep our several creeds, our doctrinal differences, in abeyance while we see what we can do for those who have no creed at all." Surely it may at least be hoped that a movement so undertaken will do something to bring good men in all churches nearer together, and that perhaps practical Christian unity in the future may come to us by a different way than that of liturgy, orders, or creed.

The creedal question placed on one side, what faces the Laymen's Movement? The mass of the unchristianized, unmissionized, at home and abroad. I am sure the church will learn much from this handling of the great task. I say the unmissionized at home and abroad. For surely wise counsel will, as the prophet of old did, put the healing salt into the head of the spring. The heads of the rivers of the future of man's life will be found both in home and in foreign lands.

The early Christians won the world because they were wise in their day and generation. Theirs was the spirit of a "sound mind." They took the seed to the ripe nations,—Rome, Greece, Egypt. But they soon went beyond these to the nations still in babyhood, the tribes out of which future nations were to be grown; these they reached while they were young and impressionable. Professor Hodgkin in his illuminating book, "Italy and Her Invaders," shows that stubborn old Rome herself was far from Christianized. Less Christian was she than the Gothic barbarians (so called) that poured into her. The Christian missionary efforts of the future will surely seek more to reach the child, individually, than our fathers sought. Corrective methods are sometimes necessary, but they are not nearly as effective as those which surround the school room, nay the cradle, with the influence of Christ. Early neglect is hard and costly to overcome. Lay men and women may be trusted to remember such simple things; and missionary movements led and planned by lay people

will not ignore them, even if orthodox preaching and practice often do.

Is it an idle dream, then, to hope that from such a movement as this may yet come to the millions of our own school children the unspeakable boon of such religious teaching as shall fit them for the duties of the home and the state? Teaching not creedal, not dogmatic, in any accepted sense, but yet a teaching truly Christian; that shall bring to the little children what Jesus meant them to have when He took them on His knees. Our schools are meant to fit children for life and its duties. Simple religious teaching lies at the key root of these. Not in England, France, or the United States do the children get such teaching. The Sunday-school cannot give it. The homes of hurried, overdriven parents are not giving it to-day. If it is withheld the loss to the future is terrible to think of. No duty in all the vast missionary world work that awaits us to-day is, I believe, so imperatively important. Here the churches have failed, and know that they have failed. Let the laymen and lay women try what they can do. If we fail to Christianize our children in the United States we certainly shall not succeed in Christianizing foreign nations. If we don't reach with the love of Jesus the children before fifteen, we shall not convert them at five and twenty. If we fail to truly Christianize the republic, we shall make the most stupendous failure the Christian church has made since she surrendered the East to Mohammedanism.

This Laymen's Movement is a rallying of forces to the flag that has been neglected. The Christian church has for long neglected her lay forces. Perhaps this is less true of American than of European churches; still it is true even here. The reasons for this are not far to seek, but I have no time even to outline them. It is enough to point to the fact. Lay people have been called to the church's aid, of course, in a multitude of ways,—money must be raised, organizations built up and sustained, teaching and visiting done. But it has generally been agreed within the sphere of church influence that a specially educated, trained official must direct the whole. In the belief of the Eastern Church, the Roman Church, and partially in the Anglican Communion, the priest, who has a divine sacramental commission, can alone be responsible for such direction. The plan has been followed for ages. It has worked fairly well. But that it fails to meet the needs of our times, the Laymen's Missionary Movement is an evidence. Machinery that works well in one decade breaks down hopelessly in the next. It is only necessary to look at the mass of unchristianized humanity at home and abroad to see that no existing church organization can be stretched enough, or galvanized enough, to meet it.

The missionary movement of the future must be the going forth to the field, the home, the foreign field, not of driblets of ordained priests, deacons, Presbyterians, Baptists, Roman Catholics, or Protestants, but of the Christian manhood and womanhood of the Christian nations. It must mean the inspiring of all of us to higher, holier, more self-sacrificing endeavor. Men and women must be found in tens of thousands who will be willing to forego much of the comfort of life, many of those things we value most, in order to uplift and educate the weak and hopeless people of the earth; while a still larger multitude, equally inspired, shall grapple with the evils that lie at our very doors. To some from foreign lands sounds the call. To others, the problems presented by the child at the door seem of first importance. Both are equally missionaries. The future maintenance of civilization itself depends on Christian success in both fields. But once for all, taking heart at this movement which has come to us, let us cast aside forever the idea that the specially educated groups of men and women, priests or ministers, sisters or deaconesses, can grapple with this thing. Nor, of course, will money do it. If these laymen could command a million dollars for one hundred dollars that they have raised, the money would not meet the occasion. A going forth of Christian civilization to the uncivilized is what is wanted. The men and women on the ground have done nobly. They are waiting for the large forces, promised by such movements as these.

Ecclesiasticism of one sort or another has ruled the councils of the church long enough. These laymen are knocking at its council doors now; but they are entering on a campaign the result of which cannot fail to supply them with so exact and intimate a knowledge of the condition to be met by Christian missionaries both at home and abroad that, having it, they cannot be excused from the church's councils. This presence cannot fail to bring new courage on the battle line, new resources and wisdom in the council chambers. They will greatly add to the churches' missionary resources. They will surely do away with much of the churchly red tape.

CHRISTIAN MISSIONS AS A WORLD PROBLEM

TRUE statesmanship has entered into the plans made for the World Missionary Conference to be held at Edinburgh, Scotland, on June 14-23 of this year. This great meeting was projected three years ago not so much with a view to producing a demonstration for inspirational and educational purposes as to provide a means for the frank interchange of views and conclusions among experts from the world's mission fields. Public meetings will be held in connection with the conference and the missionary cause will be presented in its broader and more vital aspects to the public, but the conference itself, if we may judge from the authorized prospectus, will be more like a meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Science. It will be in the fullest sense scientific, as regards the manner and method of its deliberations.

In order that the topics for discussion might be wisely chosen and properly formulated, eight commissions were appointed in 1908, each composed of twenty persons of recognized experience or ability to deal with the special questions of missionary policy assigned to them, and in the interval since their appointment each one of these commissions has associated with itself leading missionaries in the field and native Christian leaders who are qualified to give the exact information required as a basis for scientific and constructive work in missionary organization. The reports of these several commissions will be printed and in the hands of the delegates to the conference before the debates begin.

Merely to give a list of the eight topics assigned to these expert commissions is to indicate the extraordinary range which the discussions will take. One of the commissions has dealt with the problem of "Carrying the Gospel to All the World," another with "The Native Church and Its Workers," another with "Education in Relation to the Christianization of the National Life," and a fourth with "The Missionary Message in Relation to Non-Christian Religions." Other practical themes to which the conference will devote attention are "The Preparation of Missionaries," "The Home Base of Foreign Missions," "The Relation of Missions to Governments," and "Co-operation and the Promotion of Unity."

The membership of the conference will be limited to delegates appointed by missionary boards and societies in Great Britain, the British colonies, the Continent of Europe, the United States, and Canada. In all there will be about 1150 delegates, of whom 450 will represent Great Britain and an equal number the United States and Canada. The attendance at the conference will greatly exceed the number of accredited delegates. From the United States and Canada alone it is expected that about 1200 persons will be present in Edinburgh during the sessions of the conference. All branches of Protestant Christianity will be represented, and denominational differences will not be permitted to obtrude themselves in the discussions. Whether consciously or not, such a gathering cannot fail to be in itself an effective object-lesson in essential Christian unity; for it will show that a new basis for common action, to which Dr. Rainsford alludes in the foregoing article, has actually been found.

The national congress of the Laymen's Missionary Movement held last month in Chicago (in which every State and Territory was represented) showed clearly enough that this country is aroused as never before on the subject of foreign missions. The Edinburgh conference during the present month, in which such American laymen as William J. Bryan, Seth Low, and William Jay Schieffelin will take part as delegates, is likely to formulate the world's missionary policy for decades to come. American Christians, a century ago, gave the first great impulse to the cause of Protestant missions in non-Christian lands. From America in 1910 comes an impulse not less powerful in the same direction.

INDEPENDENCE DAY—THE MODERN MOLOCH

BY JOHN B. HUBER, M.D.

[The following article, contributed by a competent medical authority, sets forth in a graphic way some of the serious evils attendant on the celebration of the Fourth of July as it has been conducted for many years. It is gratifying to note that some of the leading American municipalities have already taken steps to bring about a "safe and sane" observance of the nation's holiday. The city of Washington lays claim to having been the first municipality that at once made a total prohibition of the private sale and use of fireworks, and prepared an adequate celebration which was in all respects successful. That was last year. At the close of the day the hospitals reported that they had no patients due to the celebration, whereas they had reported 104 cases on the Fourth of July, 1908, as due to accidents from the use of explosives.

The program for the day provided for a display of daylight fireworks in the morning, followed by a public meeting, with an oration, the reading of the Declaration of Independence, and the singing of patriotic songs by the school children. In the afternoon there were more daylight fireworks and a band concert on the grounds south of the White House. Later there was a parade of automobiles, and in the evening the usual fireworks display and street illumination.

The city of Springfield, Mass., has also inaugurated a series of unique celebrations of the Fourth, including historical pageants and other features, which seem to amuse the populace as much as the former more noisy and far more dangerous methods of observing the day. It is to be hoped that all who read Dr. Huber's suggestive article will be moved to propose some more rational form of celebration in their respective localities.—THE EDITOR.]

IT may surprise many a citizen to know that a very rational and earnest movement against the use of fireworks on Independence Day is now in its seventh year; nor is it universally realized among us how many of our children have, by reason of these yearly celebrations, suffered the most cruel death known to medical science. Were any such emotion possible in the English breast, that of satisfaction for the losses and humiliations endured by England in the war for Independence,—at least so far as human life is concerned,—could hardly be more thoroughly justified; for, taking no account whatever of our national losses of many decades past, but only of those incurred in the last three yearly celebrations and in the metropolis alone, we find that 1339 have been killed and injured,—more than the casualties in the Revolutionary battles of Lexington, Bunker Hill, Fort Moultrie, White Plains, Fort Washington, Monmouth, and Cowpens combined. Nor have these losses been among fighting men, but rather among little children; and of the latter wounded on Independence Day many that have not died have nevertheless been dreadfully maimed and disfigured for life.

APPALLING RAVAGES OF "FOURTH OF JULY TETANUS"

The American Medical Association has gathered most of the statistics upon which the fight against the use of fireworks on the Glorious Fourth has been based. A year ago it demonstrated in its *Journal* that in the six preceding years our whole country has shown for that festival a grand total of 29,296 killed and wounded. In 1903 there were 415 cases of Fourth of July tetanus; in 1904, 105 cases; in 1905, 104; in 1906, 89; in 1907, 55 recorded cases; in 1908, 76. In 1909 there were 150 cases, the largest number since 1903, probably by reason that the Fourth coming on Sunday, the celebration was practically one of three days; as it comes this year on Monday, there is now to be feared another triurnal tribute to the modern Moloch. It is interesting also to note that in 1908 there were 816 blank cartridge wounds, whilst in 1909 the number of wounds from this source was 1095; and that the States having the largest number of blank cartridge wounds had also the largest number of tetanus cases; also that blank cartridge wounds had a higher percentage of deaths than gunshot wounds. The most common wound productive of tetanus or lockjaw is that produced by the blank cartridge; this need not be as wide as a church door, nor as deep as a well; the merest skin puncture, perhaps even a scratch, will serve. The blank cartridge, then, is responsible for more than 60 per cent. of tetanus cases; the giant firecracker (not the small cracker) for 16 per cent.; the toy cannon, 4 per cent.; firearms,

5 per cent.; powder, 10 per cent. Not to excite undue alarm, it should be observed that blank cartridges will by no means always produce tetanus; for the eighty-nine cases developed in 1906 there were 979 blank cartridge wounds; still the disease is so appalling that no one will take for his children any chance that their wounds will prove innocuous.

THE GERM AND ITS INTRODUCTION

A fortunate peculiarity of the tetanus bacillus, the germ responsible for the disease, is that it is biologically anaerobic,—that is, it can thrive only in wounds closed and devoid of oxygen. And it rarely traverses the site of an injury,—rarely enters the lymph and blood channels; the toxins or poisons generated by it are the virulent factor. Its habitat is naturally in earth, sometimes in putrefying fluids and manure. In some localities it is ubiquitous, as in parts of Long Island; also, it is said, in a region from 1 to 5 miles in extent near Atlantic City, N. J.

The infection generally comes about through the introduction of germ-containing dirt or wads into wounds, sometimes very slight indeed, and especially of the face, hands, and feet. The wound may serve for the introduction of tetanus germs already present on the body's surface, a thing easily understood when we consider the normal condition of the small boy's hands; the paper in the blank cartridge may contain this bacillus. There may be a mere burn, apparently superficial; yet some part of a wound, however slight, may become impermeably sealed in incurring the accident; thus will the germ secure implantation in microscopic pockets or fissures. In puncture tetanus the germ may get lodgment from the instrument itself, as a dirty nail or the tine of a pitchfork. Punctured, contused, or lacerated wounds are much more dangerous than those that are clean cut as with a dagger or a sharp knife. Crushing injuries, deep lacerations, gunshot wounds, wounds beneath the skin, the fatty tissue or the tendons of muscles, and especially where wads or dirty clothing have been introduced into torn flesh, are the most dangerous.

The symptoms of tetanus may not manifest themselves until a fortnight's incubation after the injury. Then come rigidity of the neck and jaw, the *risus sardonicus*, difficulty in chewing and swallowing, chills, high fever, asphyxia, muscular spasms pitiful to look upon, opisthotonos,—bridging of the body from the occiput and the heels; rapid pulse, profuse sweating,—all this in a little child. Up to very recent years death ended these sufferings in most cases.

HOW TO SAVE THE CHILDREN

How, then, are we to prevent this dreadful disease in children? We at least forbid the toy pistol and the giant firecracker. It would seem that no case of tetanus,—at any rate such cases are very rare indeed,—has developed from Roman candles, torpedoes, paper caps, small firecrackers, or display pieces; here should indeed be ample and adequate scope for fun and uproar. Immediately a child sustains an injury from fireworks, but especially the toy pistol and the giant firecracker, a physician should be summoned, who will inject an immunizing dose of tetanus antitoxin. Such a timely dose will almost surely protect against the development of the disease; its efficacy, however, diminishes with the time lost in administering it. Before the use of this beneficent agent death in cruel suffering followed in at least 80 per cent. of these lockjaw cases. Practically all health departments now have this antitoxin available for immediate use on application, and requests may be made to them by telephone for its dispensing on the coming Fourth. In any event, repeated microscopic examinations of the secretion of the wound during the incubation period will, when they are negative, greatly allay fear of the disease. For the wound itself nothing short of heroic surgery will be justified. Free incision; thorough removal from the wound of every particle of foreign matter; cauterization with a 25 per cent. solution of carbolic acid; the application of a loose wet boric acid pack; the hypodermic injection of 1500 units of antitetanic serum; the wound invariably to be kept open and allowed to heal by granulation; the dressing and packing to be changed daily,—these are the radical steps that are essential.

Many communities are now arranging for rational means of celebrating the coming Fourth, which should be fully as enjoyable as those heretofore obtaining and without results so dreadful as have here been set down.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

ENGLAND'S SUCCESSFUL WAR MINISTER

THE Right Honorable R. B. Haldane, the British War Minister, achieved a remarkable triumph when, in March last, in the midst of a turbulent session, due to the friction between the Lords and the Commons on the Veto question, he secured the passage of the vote approving the estimates for army expenditures for the ensuing year, amounting to £27,760,000 ($138,800,000). In approving these estimates the House of Commons approved a practical reorganization of the British army; and here Mr. Haldane has been successful where several of his predecessors in office signally failed. The problem that confronted him was a difficult one. The military position of Great Britain differs from that of the other European powers owing to the fact that a large army has to be maintained in India and the Colonies, and this cannot be kept up to its requisite strength unless a corresponding number of troops is maintained at home. The conditions existing at the time Mr. Haldane received the seals of office and what he has done to improve them are set forth in *The World's Work* (London) by "A Soldier," who, himself "a distinguished military authority with ample opportunity for knowing both Mr. Haldane and his work," was commissioned by the editor to write the article.

The British military forces consisted formerly of the regular Army of the Militia, the Yeomanry, and the Volunteers; and "A Soldier" points out the defects in each at the time when Mr. Haldane first became Secretary for War.

The regular army at home and its reserve numbered over 230,000 men, with sufficient regiments and batteries to complete an expeditionary force of 150,000 men; but this army could not be mobilized because it was deficient in administrative troops. . . . Of ninety-three field batteries only one-half could have been brought up to a war footing, there being such a large deficiency in the numbers required to man the reserve ammunition columns. . . . With 230,000 men available, the War Minister could not have put more than 100,000 men fully equipped for war in the field.

Of the militia about 40 per cent. of the battalions contained less than 500 men in their ranks, and were without any reserve to bring them to a war footing.

THE RIGHT HONORABLE RICHARD B. HALDANE

The Yeomanry . . . was a fairly efficient force, but it was available for home defense only.

Lastly, there were the volunteers, composed chiefly of infantry and garrison artillery, but without cavalry or field artillery. This force, due to the patriotism of the people, had sprung up without any directing hand.

It is generally agreed that "the sole object of any military system in peace is to provide for a state of war"; and the British forces were ill adapted to meet that end; for they stood in no scientific connection with one another, and their organization rendered it impossible to use them with full advantage to the nation. Mr. Haldane saw that reconstruction was necessary, and he proceeded to build his reorganization scheme "on the foundation laid by the Committee of Im-

perial Defense . . . that the navy is adequate to protect the British Isles against invasion and that the most to be feared are raids by comparatively small forces made with a view to destroying docks or works in connection with the manufacture of armaments." Basing his reforms thus on command of the sea, Mr. Haldane proceeded to define the purposes for which the British army at home exists. In substance his decisions were as follows:

That the primary duty of the regular army is to find drafts and reliefs for the British troops stationed in India and the Colonies, and as a conscript army cannot be sent for long periods to tropical countries, this army must necessarily be a professional one enlisted for a comparatively long service.

That as Great Britain is not merely an island power, but the heart of a huge empire, any portion of which the army may be called on to defend at short notice, a highly organized, small but well-equipped field force must be always in readiness to cross the seas.

Behind this professional army, Mr. Haldane decided, there must be a second line "resting on the nation itself." This reorganization into two lines involved a reduction of the regular army, the reorganization of the militia as a special reserve to the regular army, and a welding of the Yeomanry and volunteers, the Yeomanry becoming cavalry to the second line and the garrison volunteer artillery horse and field artillery. Remembering how desperately conservative the British army is, it will be readily acknowledged that Mr. Haldane's task was no easy one. That he was able to accomplish it successfully is sufficient testimony of his indomitable courage and immense determination.

"A Soldier" gives some interesting data concerning the personality of the British War Secretary, which, condensed somewhat, we reproduce here:

Mr. Haldane was educated at the universities of Edinburgh and Göttingen; was admitted to the bar; on entering Parliament sat with the opposition, and was a member of the House of Commons for twenty years before he received his first appointment in the government as Secretary for War. He does not resemble the man of law or the thinker, but would be adjudged by 99 men out of every 100 to be a country squire of pronounced Tory views. He combines a keen intellect with a prodigious capacity for work and enormous driving power. He is not an orator, but he is a most persuasive speaker, —"persuasion tips his tongue,"—and he never fails to give credit, when due, to his predecessors and advisers, be they opponents or friends. Calm, self-possessed, and thoroughly practical, he trusts to close and sustained arguments to make good his case, appealing neither to passion nor to prejudice, and like a true philosopher scorning to make use of invective or sarcasm.

In introducing the army estimates Mr. Haldane spoke for two hours, receiving unqualified praise from both sides of the House. In the course of his remarks he stated that the War Department had obtained all the recruits that it needed both for the regular army and for the territorial reserve. He also announced that a regular aeronautical corps like that of Germany was to be created. It is a long time since so hopeful a report on British military affairs was heard in Parliament.

THE REAL DIAZ, MAKER OF MEXICO

READERS of the REVIEW will remember that in the issue for November last we noticed an article on "Barbarous Mexico," in which the writer, Mr. J. K. Turner, spoke of Mexico as "a land where the executive rules all things by means of a standing army, where peonage is the rule for the great mass, where political offices are sold for a fixed price, and where the public-school system in vast country districts is abolished because a Governor needs the money," and much more in a similar strain. In the *Sunset Magazine* for May Mr. Herman Whitaker has a forceful paper entitled "Diaz, Maker of Mexico," in his foreword to which he says: "I am not in sympathy with the policy which seeks, first, to saddle the entire responsibility for peonage upon President Diaz; secondly, to overlook or deny the great service he has rendered his country. . . . I feel certain it will be conceded that President Diaz has accomplished more than could possibly be expected of one man in a single lifetime. . . . Let the man be judged by his achievement."

Mr. Whitaker's narrative of the life of the Mexican president is a fine piece of biographical writing, characterized by many really dramatic passages, and especially noteworthy for its extreme fairness. He traces the career of the future ruler from the time when, as a cobbler's apprentice in Oajaca, he is learning to make "very excellent topboots and the

finest of shoes." At sixteen the president-to-be tries to enlist for the American War, and is rejected on account of his youth. At twenty-four he marches to the polls that are surrounded by Santa Ana's soldiers and casts his solitary vote against the tyrant. His remarkable coolness is further illustrated in his escape from the fortress of Puebla, when, in letting himself down from his cell, he falls on a nest of pigs, wakes the sentry, taps the latter on the shoulder, with the admonition: "You shouldn't sleep. If Diaz or any other of the Mexican generals up there should happen to escape there'll be the very devil to pay around your quarters." When later he takes Puebla by assault, his disposal of his prisoners evinces "a generosity and magnanimity that will appear incredible to those who have been accustomed to think of him only as a military dictator." His escape after his defeat at Icamole by Lerdo on the *City of Havana* is graphically told; and, finally, the battle of Tecoac "transmutes the shoemaker's apprentice and fugitive insurrectionist into the president and administrator."

As to the man himself, Mr. Whitaker gives the following interesting description of President Diaz as the year 1910 finds him:

> The strong nose, the thoughtfulness of the deep-set brown eyes, the quiet dignity of the face, are those of nature's aristocrat. . . . Sick or well, he never tastes alcoholic liquors. Once when prescribed brandy for dysentery he pushed the glass away with the remark: "I do not need it for my body nor to support my courage." . . . He is also sternly moral. And there can be no doubt that this personal cleanliness made possible his large success. . . . The early summer sun fails to catch him in his tub; and at an hour when the great majority of his fellow-citizens are still in bed he has made a simple breakfast on fruit and rolls. . . . Breakfast over, he goes to work with a will; and when the last need of the state has received attention turns to his play with the vim of a school-free boy. . . . In his recreations,—his bowling matches, for instance,—he casts off the dignities along with the cares of state and becomes the cheerful democratic companion. . . . Add the fact that he is a kind father, good husband, and the best of friends, and there can be no exaggeration in the statement that, contrasted with the lives of his contemporaries of Central and South America, the private life of Diaz stands out like that of Marcus Aurelius from the rottenness of degenerate Rome.

Referring to the charges of cruelty sometimes brought against Diaz in his public character, Mr. Whitaker remarks:

> No one would stand readier to press these charges than the writer, who once drew the attention of his government to the iniquities of tropical peonage and Yaqui slavery. It is doubtful whether Diaz will try to deny these things, for fairness forces the statement that even in this he has followed out his iron policies. As the watered valleys of the Yaquis were required to round out his economic plans, their resistance to his aggressions placed them in the same category with political criminals, and he moved against them with the same ruth, nor paused till the last Yaqui was gone. Neither is it to be expected that a man whose own life was at hazard every day of twenty years, and who had seen thousands of lives go into the foundations of the republic, would hesitate to sacrifice a few thousand peons in the cause of the country. It is only fair to add that the greed and cruelty of individual planters are responsible for the worst features of peonage, and as iniquities exist in holes and corners beyond the range of his vision judgment should be suspended till they have been properly brought to his notice. As, lastly, such waste of life is unnecessary as it is inhuman, it is reasonable to suppose that a man who has shown such sagacity in all other things and magnanimity in so many of them will stop it when once he knows.

PRESIDENT DIAZ, OF MEXICO

Concerning the charge of political tyranny, Mr. Whitaker observes that "there are, of course, tyrants and tyrants. For Diaz, *despot* is the better word, and no man who

knows his Mexico would deny his right to the title." The other day a large number of students were expelled from state schools for political activity. *La Libertad*, the organ of the "Reyistas," was suppressed and the editor imprisoned. Thirty officers were arrested for revolutionary propaganda in the army. All of which goes to show that "only by revolution could Reyes or any other candidate remove Diaz from the presidential chair. With him the presidency is to become a habit which he cannot command." As a Westerner remarked to the *Sunset* writer: "The elections are a huge farce. The ticket is made up by Diaz, and none but office-holders and their friends go to the polls. . . . Diaz knows just how much liberty we can use, and takes care that we get no more." And, as Mr. Whitaker puts it: "There's the point." All experiments in self-government of Latin peoples on this continent tend to show that in their cases a benevolent despotism is better than government by revolution. Quoting Mr. Whitaker further:

To prove Diaz's government benevolent it is necessary only to draw the comparison between the Mexico of to-day with the Mexico under the sixty-five rulers. To a country drenched in blood, he brought peace so long and continuous that only men of middle age remember the last war. Bankrupt and undeveloped, he restored her financial status and brought her forward to the planes of civilization. . . . The Reyes propaganda would seem to indicate that the long peace had not altogether cured the itch for revolution,—a little more blood-letting may be required to destroy the last germ. But one thing is certain: while armies have been known to cast away their standards, they never desert the payroll; and that three or four thousands of millions which have found permanent investment in the country are not going to stand for too much revolution.

Diaz's maternal uncle lived to be 102. If the president's well-known sober habits and iron constitution should permit him to equal that remarkable span it would mean twenty-two years more of peace. By then "the last of the old revolutionists would be dead, war be forgotten by the oldest man, and peace might very well have become a national habit." But whatever may arrive, one thing is certain: the shoemaker's apprentice of Oajaca, now sitting in the seat of Spanish viceroys and Aztec emperors, is a more absolute ruler over a greater Mexico than any of them ever knew.

GROWING AND SELLING BULBS IN HOLLAND

IT would be well worth braving the tempestuous seas of early spring to visit Holland at the time when, in March and April, the far-stretching fields are resplendent with the crocus, hyacinth, and tulip. And if the visitor should also be given access to the "garden room" of some private citizen and see this filled with hyacinths of every shade of color, grown in perforated pots of fanciful design, from whose apertures the heavy flower-stalks so issue forth as to make these assume the shape of the vessel in which they grow, he would there get some idea of both the skill and artistic taste of the Dutch in floriculture.

A very impressive idea of both this field and house culture might have been obtained by any one who should have been permitted to visit in the past March the exhibition given by the Union of Bulb Culture in the famous woods of Haarlem to celebrate the semi-centennial of its existence. On this occasion the union issued a brochure commemorative of its origin and progress, which at the same time gives a most interesting account of bulb culture in Holland. The gist of the contents of this volume is given in the *Hollandsche Revue* of Haarlem.

After mentioning the introduction of the tulip from Asia into Holland by way of Turkey and Vienna, and the instantly successful culture there of that flower in the lowlands bordering on the sea, and the famous tulip mania, the progress of this valuable Dutch industry is noted as follows:

As early as the beginning of the seventeenth century a regular commerce in bulbs had already developed in Holland. Price lists were sent out from Haarlem to Germany, France, and England, and increasing quantities of the bulbs were exported to foreign lands. In the eighteenth century the tulip began to give place in importance to the hyacinth. This was the period of the famous George Voorhelm, whose standard work on hyacinths reached three editions in France, and was translated also into English, German, and Italian. In the early part of the nineteenth century the "winter garden-room" came to be principally a collection of hyacinths, the early cultivated varieties of this flower forged to the front and gave to the culture of this an unlooked for vogue, and thus started a new period in the trade in bulbs.

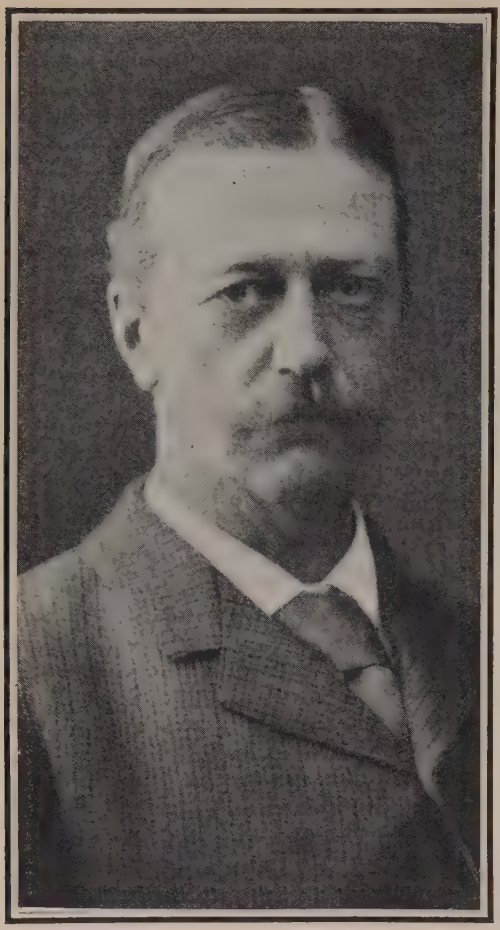
DUTCH BULBS: THE MOST PICTURESQUE INDUSTRY OF HOLLAND

(Loading a boat with hyacinths, tulips, and daffodils for the London flower market. The flowers, however, are grown less for the blooms than for the bulbs. This farm is located about midway between the thriving Dutch cities of Leyden and Haarlem)

The Dutch bulb industry, however, had to struggle for a number of years with two serious obstacles. The first of these was the periodical flooding at high water of the sections in which the bulb culture was carried on. To prevent the great damage and consequent loss caused by this the government was repeatedly importuned by the commissioners of dikes to construct a drainage system to protect the sections devoted to bulb culture against the destructive element. It was not till after the great damage caused by the floods of 1876, however, that the government gave any indication of interest in the matter. And even then some three or four years had to pass before the drainage system at Katwyk was constructed and brought the long desired relief. From that time dates the rapid progress in the cultivation of and trade in bulbs in the province of South Holland, the leading section in the kingdom devoted to that industry. And, indeed, by this time this business had become an important factor in the national welfare.

An entirely different and quite singular obstacle to this important industry of the Netherlands had its origin in Italy. In 1875 the Italian Government passed an ordinance forbidding the importation of bulbs. This act was based upon the fear that with the bulbs might also come in the Colorado potato bug. It required not a few representations on the part of the Dutch florists to the Italian Ambassador and the Foreign Secretary of Holland before the prohibition was withdrawn. And yet, though it had been repeatedly demonstrated that the Colorado beatle could not be carried into Italy by flower-bulbs, and though the importation of potatoes from the United States and Canada into Holland was forbidden by law, permission for the free importation of bulbs into Italy was not granted till 1888, thirteen years after the enactment of the prohibitory law. From that time on the culture of and trade in bulbs has advanced in Holland with rapid pace, as the following figures will indicate: In 1860 the land occupied in this branch of floriculture amounted to only about 740 acres. In the two following decades this slowly grew to double that acreage, while in the ten years from 1890 to 1900 it had risen to more than eight times the original figure, and by 1909 it amounted to very nearly 10,000 acres. A similar growth, at first also slow and very gradual, is shown in the number of cultivators and the price of land, the former rising from 300 in 1860 to nearly 3000 in 1909 and the latter from 7000 florins per hectare to 15,000 florins. In the same period the number of employees rose from 500 to 4000, and the annual wages paid out from 150,000 florins to 2,000,000. In the same half-century the gross receipts from the export of bulbs rose from 1,000,000 florins in 1860 to 12,000,000 florins in 1909, while the membership of the Union of Bulb Culture has risen to nearly 3200.

THE NEW HARVARD AND ITS NEW PRESIDENT



PRESIDENT A. LAWRENCE LOWELL, OF HARVARD

CHANGES many and important are in progress at Harvard University. The Rev. A. A. Berle, D.D., writing in the *Bibliotheca Sacra,* goes so far as to say that they mark "the beginning of an educational revolution in America." Forty years ago when Dr. Eliot assumed control at Harvard the great State universities had not attained their present importance. At that time a degree from Harvard "connoted in the minds of the people of the country something which it did not really possess. It stood for qualities, discipline, and intellectual strenuousness which the elective system as administered did as much as any one thing which happened at Harvard in the last twenty-five years to depress. Harvard men among themselves have always admitted this." Under the unrestricted elective system many youths were sent to Harvard "who neither wanted a liberal education nor had the capacity for receiving it." In its new head "the finest trait of Harvard finds illustration,—namely, the power and the determination to allow no traditional attitude to hinder development in the university,—and least of all to blind the administrative head to the obvious evils which have been long known and remain unremedied in the instruction of students."

Besides their remarkable educational advancement, the great State universities have demonstrated the fundamental fact of modern democratic organization,—that "great communities extending over vast areas can be co-ordinated with their higher institutions in affectionate and permanent interest in such a way as to make them the premier force in democratic civilization." To quote Dr. Berle further, the State universities have shown

> that enormous taxation for the higher education not only will be borne, but gladly borne, by a democratic community which has few or no scholarly traditions; and that what has obtained as a species of religion at Cambridge,—that you have to rely upon the third generation of college men for endowment,—is a pure absurdity when you have real democracy in education. No university in this land has paid so costly a price for this contempt for the masses as Harvard has; for she is at this moment in the midst of a thoroughly hostile community which would not hesitate to tax her out of existence if there were not so many and such selfish motives against it. Even the great public-service corporations have found out that you cannot operate successfully in a hostile community. Harvard failed to find that out under the most expert financier that any university in America ever had.

In this matter President Lowell has a great advantage over Dr. Eliot, for he "starts with a knowledge which his predecessor did not even suspect." As trustee for the Lowell Institute "he has really been at the head of a popular university and has felt the popular pulse as Mr. Eliot never felt it." President Lowell has announced his determination to "co-ordinate Harvard University with the community, and to federate it with all the neighboring institutions to this end." In a word, he "proposes that Harvard shall be as it originally was, rooted and grounded in the life of the community and have a place in its affections as well as in its intellectual regard."

Speaking of the changes in the system of education at the new Harvard, Dr. Berle says that "President Lowell believes in the college. He does not believe in handling a youth just out of a high school as though he were a man ready for professional studies." No sooner were the formalities of President Lowell's inauguration over than the faculty and governing boards agreed upon a plan under which a standing committee prepared general rules for the choice of electives, based upon the principle "that a student must take a considerable amount of work in some one field, and that the rest of his courses must be well distributed." Also that at the end of his first year in college each student must present to his adviser a plan of study for the remainder of his college course; and "that a student's plan be subsequently changed only for a cause satisfactory to the committee." The rules in accordance with which the freshman class of 1910 will begin the new régime show a real revolution in Harvard education.

> Nothing that is really valuable in the elective system is lost; in fact, it is generally understood that any student who shows himself capable of electing wisely and effectively will have little or no difficulty in making any elections he chooses. But what has been made certain is that every student in Harvard College hereafter is going to get something resembling education; and none will go out of the college despising the men who achieve academic distinction, because they will have some conception, attained by hard work, what that distinction means in brain force, in character, in concentration and devotion to a purely intellectual end.

Citing the case of a certain professor at Harvard, who less than a generation ago would decline to answer a simple question on which his opinion merely as an educated man would have been valuable by saying "It is not in my department," Dr. Berle remarks that "President Lowell evidently will not regard, as a superior qualification for any chair in Harvard, total and arrogant ignorance of every other department of knowledge." The insular characters, the want of solidarity, the absence of cohesiveness which "made Harvard stand for something so purely individualistic as to appear a rather poorly concealed superciliousness and contempt for other forms and methods of education," have passed with the advent of the new president. "Harvard from this time is with her sister institutions, not apart from them."

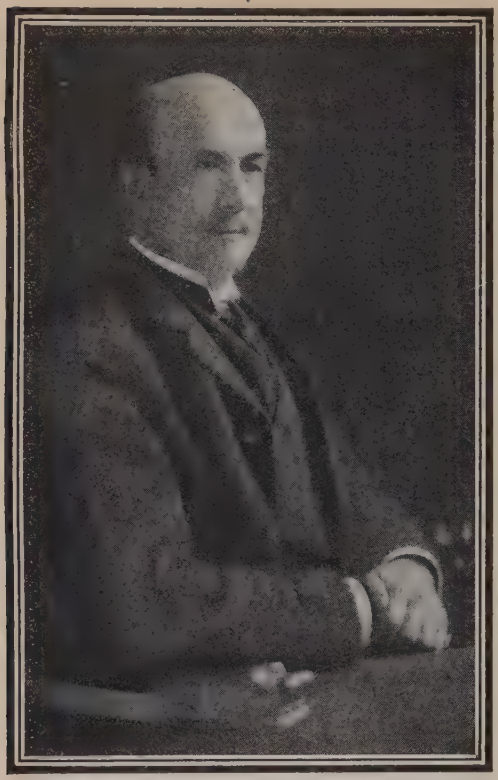
WILLIAM GRAHAM SUMNER: YALE'S GREATEST ECONOMIST

BY the death of William Graham Sumner, which occurred on April 12, 1910, the United States has lost one of its ablest professional economists, and, as the *Yale Review* comments, there has been closed "an epoch not only in economic and sociological instruction at Yale but also in the economic thought of the country." In place of the ordinary obituary notice the editors of that journal conceived the happy idea of a series of short, signed articles treating of the late professor from different points of view,—namely, as pioneer, teacher, inspirer, idealist, man, and veteran.

THE PIONEER

Prof. Henry W. Farnam, writing under this heading, calls to mind the fact that when Sumner succeeded to the chair of political and social science at Yale College in 1872 there were but few professional economists in the country. Besides Walker at the Sheffield Scientific School, Dunbar at Harvard, and Perry at Williams College there were few who could be said to have taken up the teaching of economics as a profession. At that time when new tutors were appointed at Yale they were "expected to teach either Latin, Greek, or mathematics, as might be required of them. . . . Hence, Mr. Sumner, when he came to the college in 1866, had to teach, first, mathematics and afterward Greek." The effect of his teaching on the student body was marvelous. Says Professor Farnam:

> We had no one who so stimulated our thoughts and so interested us. We felt that he put new interpretations upon history and upon the facts of everyday life; a new world of ideas was opened to us. He not only inspired his classes, but he at once became known to the public by his attacks upon inflation and protection. . . . He was a magnificent fighter. While he hit hard, he was always fair and frank. But his vigorous blows produced antagonism. The protectionists were outraged



THE LATE PROF. WILLIAM GRAHAM SUMNER

and incensed at his advocacy of free-trade. The greenbackers, silver men, and bimetallists could not endure his advocacy of the gold standard. . . . In his teaching, in his research work, and in his public influence he was essentially a pioneer. He possessed the strong convictions, the splendid physique, and the militant spirit which pioneers must have.

THE TEACHER

That the late professor will be remembered as one of the great teachers of his time is the opinion expressed by Prof. J. C. Schwab. His pre-eminence in this respect "hinged on his unusual power to draw his pupils with him." He had the power "to stir his pupils to observe carefully social and economic phenomena, and to describe them in clear terms. His deductions were always striking and caught his hearers. . . . He is remembered by his aphorisms and generalizations. . . . His hatred of humbug and sham was an inspiration to successive generations of students. The best and truest in their mental and moral make-up were deeply stirred by Professor Sumner's rugged honesty, his devoted loyalty to his calling, and withal his kindly personal interest in their growth."

Prof. Irving Fisher thinks "few teachers have ever lived who have influenced the lives of their students as did Professor Sumner." In his nature concealment found no place. Few men have been more ready to admit an error, more anxious to know and teach the naked truth, and more free from pride of opinion."

"I am sure that I am but one of a multitude of Yale graduates who look back to a course taken under Professor Sumner as marking an epoch in their intellectual development," writes Prof. Clive Day. "Seen through Professor Sumner's eyes, history appeared broader and deeper than it had ever seemed before. . . . The great element in Professor Sumner's power was his idealism. Beyond and above the material phenomena of life he taught us to see its great realities."

THE MAN

The tribute of Prof. Albert G. Keller to the engaging personality of Professor Sumner is a particularly happy one. He writes:

As the writer looks back over the years of association with Professor Sumner the reflection which disengages itself from many others is this: how inevitably, yet without effort, did this man win allegiance, at first intellectual, and then of the affections to himself. Whatever he touched he transformed with interest,—lending such glamour, for example, to such an uninspiring object as a colonial piece of eight that all of us wanted to own one, or to see one essayed, at once. This was the sort of teaching that counted. . . . His invariable background was common sense.

Of Professor Sumner's fidelity to obligation, the following example is cited:

Not many years ago there occurred a heavy snowstorm on a Sunday night and Monday morning; and the trolley cars had not yet begun to run on time for an 8.30 class. Some of us who had waded in through the drifts were wagering that Sumner had been stopped for once, for he lived a mile or so from college, and was not very strong at the time. But when we went to his lecture-room to look, he was there, in his familiar, old-fashioned leather boots, flushed and panting, but ready for business. . . . None of us can hope to rival that compelling quality of his which caused young men to wish to follow him above all others; for that was part of his genius.

PROFESSOR ELY'S TRIBUTE

Prof. Richard T. Ely writes: "As years went on I came to have an increasing appreciation of his work and an increasingly friendly feeling for him. . . . Although still unable to accept his underlying philosophy of society, I can now see more clearly than then that his clear-cut utterances had in them a

message well worthy of consideration." Professor Ely also states that he always welcomed into his graduate classes a Yale man trained by Professor Sumner. Such a student had "something definite and positive on which to build."

AN ALLEGED DANGER OF OCEAN TRAVEL

OCEAN travel,—more specifically passage across the Atlantic,—has come to be regarded as so particularly safe, the assertions of the various steamship companies as to the precautions taken for the protection of their patrons having hitherto been accepted so implicitly, that it is much to be regretted that there should be published any statement calculated to cause uneasiness among the sea-going public, unless, of course, conditions endangering life and calling for exposal really exist. In the *Atlantic Monthly* an article, entitled "The Man on the Bridge," by Charles Terry Delaney, has caused something of a sensation among those who in the pursuit of health or of pleasure "go down to the sea in ships"; and it is not going too far to say that, if true, the allegations made should result in immediate action on the part of the steamship companies for the remedy of the conditions depicted, and that if not capable of substantiation the article should never have been printed. Take, for example, the following extract:

> Except when rounding headlands, approaching harbor, or during fog, the master rarely mounts the bridge at all; everything is left in charge of the officer of the watch. There is no risk in this if the officer has had a sufficient amount of sleep. But does the officer in charge always get sufficient sleep to act quickly for the benefit and safety of those whose lives are in his keeping? I answer, emphatically, "No." At times he is no more fit to be left in charge than is a lunatic; and a moment's delay, a wrong order, or the slightest let-up in his vigilance is often all that is required to send both the liner and its freight of between three and four thousand souls to the bottom.

This passage occurs in a description of a voyage from Liverpool to New York; and Mr. Delaney charges that when leaving port "the second officer, when he goes on the bridge, has been on his feet without sleep for at least thirty-nine hours." He claims that in nothing are his statements exaggerated; and he goes on to say:

> I have experienced all that I have described, many times. I have been left in charge of a liner carrying in all about thirty-three hundred souls. These, in addition to the valuable ship and freight, have been under my charge at a time when I have been from thirty to forty hours on my feet, and without sleep or rest. The safety of all has depended on my vigilance at a time when soul, mind, and body have long been worn out. To keep awake at such times is torture; one must walk, walk, walk, and get through somehow; and all this in waters crowded with shipping and where vessels are subjected to the whims of tides! At no other time in their lives, perhaps, are passengers in such jeopardy. Just when an officer should be at his best and have all his wits about him, he is as heavy as lead and worse than useless.

While the tracks adopted by the leading steamship companies minimize the risks of an ocean passage, "the gravest and most unwarrantable risks are taken in the very worst places in the world,—the English channels." The condition of sailors and officers at the commencement of a voyage is thus described:

> Sailors on leaving port, often muddled through drink, are of no assistance to the officer in keeping a lookout. The officers, though not through drink, are worse than muddled. Their faculties are impaired, their eyes are almost closed, their bodies are worn out; all this through false economy, or ignorance and bad management, on somebody's part. Until some fine vessel with her precious cargo is sent to the bottom through collision, these things, I believe, will not be rectified. It is only by good luck that this has not happened already.

Mr. Delaney pays a high tribute to the qualifications of the young officers on the liners; and he assures his readers that "if there were only one certificated officer left on a ship the passengers need have no fear of her not coming into port." Indeed, he says plainly, that whereas the British authorities call for the presence of the master on the bridge of his vessel "at all times during fog," it would be far better for the safety of the ship if the command were handed over to the chief officer when the master finds himself worn out by watching. Under existing conditions the writer of the article under review has seen "a master sixty years of age or thereabout stand on a bridge for over seventy hours, with eyes that were useless through strain and hearing impaired by the constant shrieking of the fog-whistle." Is it right, he asks, to expect such a man to command in case of emergency? But hazy weather,—in sailor language, "one part clear to two parts thick,"—is even more danger-

ous than fog. In such weather, especially if the master has just been on the bridge for a stretch, the officer in charge hesitates to call the latter again and sound the whistle. Serious risks are taken at such times. Mr. Delaney mentions two instances in which he nearly lost his ship: one when he was "going at the rate of 21 knots," and the ship passed within 20 feet of an iceberg; the other when, "with hardly a moment's warning," the *Deutschland* hove in sight about an eighth of a mile away, the two ships passing each other with less than a hundred feet between them.

Another danger arises from inaccurate charts. On this point the evidence cited is circumstantial enough:

For example: on British Chart No. 2480, Fire Island Lightship and Sandy Hook Lightship are given as being in the same latitude. All British books of instruction, coast-pilots, "lights of the world," etc., give both the same latitude,—namely, 48° 28′ North. Now, the latest American surveys place Fire Island Lightship in 40° 28′ 40″ North and Sandy Hook Lightship in 40° 28′ 2″ North, a difference of nearly three-quarters of a mile. . . . The three-quarters of a mile of difference between the two surveys is quite enough to pile any ship up high and dry.

THE NEW QUESTS FOR THE SOUTH POLE

SHACKLETON'S expedition as well as the contemplated Antarctic explorations of a number of other investigators lend a timely interest to an article in the Berlin *Gegenwart* by Dr. Adolf Heilborn, in which he dwells particularly upon the project of Wilhelm Filchner, the daring explorer of Tibet. We give some of the main features of his remarks:

From remote times a Southern Continent has been the dream and hope of geographers.

Hipparchus in 150 B. C. located its beginnings as far north as Ceylon, while Ptolemy, 300 years later, placed them much farther south, where Africa juts out to the east, and his view prevailed up to the time of the Portuguese explorers. The rounding of the Cape of Good Hope and shortly after of Cape Horn, dispelled these erroneous suppositions. Cook demonstrated in 1769 that New Zealand, too, was only an island, and not the coast of a continent beyond Australia. The Russian, Bellingshausen, in 1821 was the first to discover a real Antarctic mainland, naming it Alexander Land. Ross, while searching for the magnetic pole in 1840-'42, discovered the ice-mantled Victoria Land. Another interval of a generation ensued without any notable polar explorations; but since 1897 the old problem has been infused with new life: the German zoologist, Chun, in 1897-'99; the Belgian expedition under de Gerlache, 1898-'99,—the first to winter in the Antarctic regions,—and Borchgevink's expedition, fitted out by English means, strove for its solution. Then from 1901 to 1905 we have a period of international undertakings: the German, Drygalski; the Englishman, Robert Scott; the Swede, Nordenskjöld; the Frenchman, Charcot; the Scotchman, Bruce, have contributed towards lifting the veil that hangs over the Antarctic regions. Shackleton, penetrating farther than any of these (88° 23′) into the very heart of the polar region, established beyond doubt the existence of a south-polar continent. His success naturally gave a new impetus to Antarctic exploration.

No less than five new expeditions are planned for 1910-11, and that of the German, Filchner, promises to be the most notable. In the meeting last March of the Berlin Geographical Society, he laid his plan before the astonished circle of scholars,—a plan which aroused genuine enthusiasm and was joyfully hailed by Nordenskjöld, who chanced to be present. Filchner, in an interview solicited by the writer, communicated to him details of his project which have not yet been made public, and which were the occasion of his article.

LIEUTENANT WILHELM FILCHNER

(Organizer and leader of the projected German South Polar expedition)

Filchner's plan is not of recent conception; it is a pet idea of the daring explorer which inadequate means have heretofore prevented him from prosecuting.

Bruce, the discoverer of Coatsland, means to start from that point and make an earnest endeavor to cross the Antarctic region; the same course, advocated by Peary, is contemplated by the Americans. But while in both cases the chief aim is to reach the South Pole, Filchner puts another problem in the foreground,—the clearing up of the relation between the east and west polar regions. Are these connected, or are they divided from each other? A great geographical problem awaits solution here, more important than the attainment of the South Pole.

To solve this problem is the task that Filchner has set himself, and there is every reason to believe that he will succeed in solving it. His achievements in the highlands of Tibet,—often under the most adverse circumstances,—seem to mark him as predestined for such a task; his motto: "Pessimist in preparation, optimist in action," betrays the prudent investigator who realizes how multitudinous are the requirements for boldly penetrating into the unknown Antarctic regions.

In order to carry out his plan Filchner wants to utilize two small vessels,—it being more difficult for those of a large size to steer their way through the ice-channels. Chief importance, however, is attached to the sledges, which will be drawn by ponies and dogs, the first obtained from Greenland, the last from Central Asia.

The success of an expedition depends primarily upon thorough preparation; among other things, those who are to participate with Filchner propose to spend a number of weeks in the summer of 1910 in the north polar regions in order to familiarize themselves with the conditions in such sections. The real expedition, which is calculated to extend over about three years, will not start before the summer of 1911.

ROOSEVELT ADDRESSES EUROPE

"WHAT is it that makes Mr. Roosevelt the power he unquestionably is?" With this query the London *Daily Chronicle* begins a keen, yet sympathetic analysis of the ex-President's speeches at Paris, Christiania, and Berlin. In essaying to answer its own question this London journal admits that he is "not a deep or subtle thinker," that "most of his harangues are little more than strings of eminently estimable platitudes," and yet "they always thrill the audience to whom they are addressed and always thrill the greater audience who can only read them in print." The truth is chiefly, concludes the editorial from which we have quoted, that Mr. Roosevelt "brings to the problems of life and conduct and politics, first, a thoroughly fresh, pristine, and elemental type of mind and character, and, secondly, the courage to say out loud what most men feel, but few even whisper." Moreover, Mr. Roosevelt himself always practices what he preaches, and "his earnestness and sincerity are so overwhelming as to invest the most hoary platitude with a new meaning and a new message."

Concluding with the remark that a possible proof of Mr. Roosevelt's subtlety of intellect may be found in his understanding that "the great majority of mankind enjoy being preached at and like to hear the eternal virtues thundered at them through a megaphone," the *Chronicle* reproduces the text of the speeches in question. Most of the journals of England and the continent comment extensively on these utterances of Mr. Roosevelt.

THE OBLIGATIONS OF REPUBLICAN CITIZENSHIP

"Citizenship in a Republic" was the title of an address delivered by Mr. Roosevelt before the Sorbonne on April 23. After rapidly sketching the progress of civilization pioneering in new regions of the world, and at the same time instituting a comparison between the settled conditions of European life and the rude surroundings of colonial America, the lecturer passed to his subject of the responsibilities of individual citizens in republics, such as France and the United States.

A democratic republic such as each of ours,—an effort to realize in its full sense government by, of, and for the people,—represents the most gigantic of all possible social experiments, the one fraught with greatest possibilities alike for good and for evil. The success of republics like yours and like ours means the glory, and our failure the despair, of mankind; and for you and for us the question of the quality of the individual citizen is supreme. Under other forms of government, under the rule of one man or of a very few men, the quality of the rulers is all-important. If, under such governments, the quality of the rulers is high enough, then the nation may for generations lead a brilliant career, and add substantially to the sum of world achievement, no matter how low the quality of the average citizen; because the average citizen is an almost negligible quantity in working out the final results of that type of national greatness. But with you and with us the case is different. With you here, and with us in my own home, in the long run, success or failure will be

conditioned upon the way in which the average man, the average woman, does his or her duty, first in the ordinary, everyday affairs of life, and next in those great occasional crises which call for the heroic virtues. The average citizen must be a good citizen if our republics are to succeed.

It is not the critic who counts, Mr. Roosevelt contended, but the man who, while he makes mistakes, achieves and achieves because of optimistic belief in the value of life.

Let the man of learning, the man of lettered leisure, beware of that queer and cheap temptation to pose to himself and to others as the cynic, as the man who has outgrown emotions and beliefs, the man to whom good and evil are as one. The poorest way to face life is to face it with a sneer. There are many men who feel a kind of twisted pride in cynicism; there are many who confine themselves to criticism of the way others do what they themselves dare not even attempt. There is no more unhealthy being, no man less worthy of respect, than he who either really holds, or feigns to hold, an attitude of sneering disbelief towards all that is great and lofty, whether in achievement or in that noble effort which, even if it fail, comes second to achievement. . . . Shame on the man of cultivated taste who permits refinement to develop into a fastidiousness that unfits him for doing the rough work of a workaday world. Among the free peoples who govern themselves there is but a small field of usefulness open for the men of cloistered life who shrink from contact with their fellows. Still less room is there for those who deride or slight what is done by those who actually bear the brunt of the day; nor yet for those others who always profess that they would like to take action, if only the conditions of life were not what they actually are. The man who does nothing cuts the same sordid figure in the pages of history, whether he be cynic, or fop, or voluptuary.

Among the lessons that France has taught to other nations, one of the most important, Mr. Roosevelt believes, is that "a high artistic, and literary development is compatible with notable leadership in arms and statecraft."

Then by easy stages he passes to his favorite subjects of virile prowess in war and racial fertility. While war is a dreadful thing, and "unjust war is a crime against humanity," the question must not be merely, "Is there to be peace or war?" but "Is the right to prevail? Are the great laws of righteousness once more to be fulfilled?" The chief of blessings, moreover, for any nation is "that it shall leave its seed to inherit the land. . . . The first essential in any civilization is that the man and the woman shall be the father and mother of healthy children, so that the race shall increase and not decrease." The nation that observes these maxims will be a nation of character, for "the homely virtues of the household, the ordinary workaday virtues which make the woman a good housewife and housemother, which make the man a good worker, a good husband or father, a good soldier at need, stand at the bottom of character."

The good citizen must have high ideals,—is another of Mr. Roosevelt's insistently repeated doctrines. He must be a good individual, but we must remember that "as society develops and grows more complex we continually find that things which once it was so desirable to leave to individual initiative can under the changed conditions be performed with better results by common effort."

I am a strong individualist by personal habit, inheritance, and conviction; but it is a mere matter of common sense to recognize that the State, the community, the citizens acting together, can do a number of things better than if they were left to individual action.

And yet, as he puts it further on:

Just so long as there is inequality of service there should and must be inequality of reward. We may be sorry for the general, the painter, the artist, the worker in any profession or of any kind, whose misfortune rather than whose fault it is that he does his work ill. But the reward must go to the man who does his work well; for any other course is to create a new kind of privilege, the privilege of folly and weakness; and special privilege is injustice, whatever form it takes. To say that the thriftless, the lazy, the vicious, the incapable, ought to have the reward given to those who are far-sighted, capable, and upright, is to say what is not true and cannot be true. Let us try to level up, but let us beware of the evil of leveling down.

French opinion upon the address at the Sorbonne may be summed up in the comment of the *Temps* in the words: "It is the advice of an honest man, valuable to France because his deeds in life during thirty years have qualified him to speak."

AT CHRISTIANIA HE ADVOCATES A LEAGUE OF PEACE

In his address on "International Peace," before the Nobel Prize Committee at Christiania on May 5, Mr. Roosevelt traced the progress made during recent years in the cause of international peace. He paid tribute to the part taken by the Scandinavian nations in the advance of international arbitration, complimented the work of the Hague Tribunal, spoke a few vigorous sentences in favor of checking the growth of armaments, and advocated as a master-stroke the forma-

tion of a League of Peace by those great powers that honestly desire world friendliness. These nations, he believed, should not only keep the peace among themselves but prevent, "by force if necessary," its being broken by others. Nevertheless, said the ex-President, reverting to his favorate theme of enforcing peace by being prepared for war:

We must ever bear in mind that the great end in view is righteousness, justice as between man and man, nation and nation, the chance to lead our lives on a somewhat higher lever, with a broader spirit of brotherly good-will one for another. Peace is generally good in itself, but it is never the highest good unless it comes as the handmaid of righteousness; and it becomes a very evil thing if it serves merely as a mask for cowardice and sloth, or as an instrument to further the ends of despotism or anarchy. We despise and abhor the bully, the brawler, the oppressor, whether in private or public life; but we despise no less the coward and the voluptuary. No man is worth calling a man who will not fight rather than submit to infamy or see those that are dear to him suffer wrong. No nation deserves to exist if it permits itself to lose the stern and virile virtues; and this without regard to whether the loss is due to the growth of a heartless and all-absorbing commercialism, to prolonged indulgence in luxury and soft effortless ease, or to the deification of a warped and twisted sentimentality.

"THE WORLD MOVEMENT" AT BERLIN

It was during the rather extended commemoration ceremonies of the centenary of the University of Berlin that ex-President Roosevelt delivered on May 12 his lecture entitled "The World Movement," under the auspices of the Roosevelt exchange professorship at the German capital.

A brief review of the honorable part played in the advance of European civilization by peoples of the German stock and the different ruling dynasties of German blood preceded the general subject of the lecture, which the speaker introduced in these words:

Germany is pre-eminently a country in which the world movement of to-day in all of its multitudinous aspects is plainly visible. The life of this university covers the period during which that movement has spread until it is felt throughout every continent; while its velocity has been constantly accelerating, so that the face of the world has changed, and is now changing, as never before.

Despite the temptation to grandiloquent generalization, the ex-President's survey of human progress for several thousand years was characterized by individuality, intellectual honesty, and specific illustration. In modern times only, he contended, practically only since the invention of printing, has a real world movement been possible. Printing and advance in transportation facilities made it possible only at the dawn of modern times for the branches of the human family, widely separated by distance and alien tongues, to deal with one another, to exchange influences, and finally, by the expansion and organization of commerce, to enter upon a real world movement.

In the elaboration of his theme Mr. Roosevelt reached the emphasis he always places on the necessity of civilization preserving "the fighting edge." He elaborated the point by complimenting the German Emperor and the existing German army in a few strong paragraphs on the necessity for a citizen soldiery. Modern civilization, he contended further, is much superior to the civilization of Greece and Rome in the relation it has established between wealth and politics. In view of our constant and fierce denunciation of this unholy alliance as it exists to-day, it is interesting to read these words:

In classic times, as the civilization advanced toward its zenith, politics became a recognized means of accumulating great wealth. Cæsar was again and again on the verge of bankruptcy; he spent an enormous fortune; and he recouped himself by the money which he made out of his political-military career. Augustus established Imperial Rome on firm foundations by the use he made of the huge fortune he had acquired by plunder. What a contrast is offered by the careers of Washington and Lincoln! There were a few exceptions in ancient days; but the immense majority of the Greeks and the Romans, as their civilizations culminated, accepted money-making on a large scale as one of the incidents of a successful public career. Now all of this is in sharp contrast to what has happened within the last two or three centuries. During this time there has been a steady growth away from the theory that money-making is permissible in an honorable public career. In this respect the standard has been constantly elevated, and things which statesmen had no hesitation in doing three centuries or two centuries ago, and which did not seriously hurt a public career even a century ago, are now utterly impossible. Wealthy men still exercise a large, and sometimes an improper, influence in politics, but it is apt to be an indirect influence; and in the advanced States the mere suspicion that the wealth of public men is obtained or added to as an incident of their public careers will bar them from public life. Speaking generally, wealth may very greatly influence modern political life, but it is not acquired in political life. The colonial administrators, German or American, French or English, of this generation lead careers which, as compared with the careers of other men of like ability, show too little rather than too much regard for money-making; and literally a world scandal would be caused by conduct which a Roman proconsul would have regarded as moderate, and which

would not have been especially uncommon even in the administration of England a century and a half ago. On the whole, the great statesmen of the last few generations have been either men of moderate means, or, if men of wealth, men whose wealth was diminished rather than increased by their public services.

Are we, the lecturer asked in conclusion, so many among whom have lost the "fighting edge," to go the way of the old civilization?

The immense increase in the area of civilized activity to-day, so that it is nearly coterminous with the world's surface; the immense increase in the multitudinous variety of its activities; the immense increase in the velocity of the world movement,—are all these to mean merely that the crash will be all the more complete and terrible when it comes? We cannot be certain that the answer will be in the negative; but of this we can be certain, that we shall not go down in ruin unless we deserve and earn our end. There is no necessity for us to fall; we can hew out our destiny for ourselves, if only we have the wit and the courage and the honesty. Personally, I do not believe that our civilization will fall. I think that on the whole we have grown better and not worse. I think that on the whole the future holds more for us than even the great past has held. But, assuredly, the dreams of golden glory in the future will not come true unless, high of heart and strong of hand, by our own mighty deeds we make them come true. We cannot afford to develop any one set of qualities, any one set of activities, at the cost of seeing others, equally necessary, atrophied. . . . We need, first of all and most important of all, the qualities which stand at the base of individual, of family life, the fundamental and essential qualities,—the homely, everyday, all-important virtues. . . . But these homely qualities are not enough. There must, in addition, be that power of organization, that power of working in common for a common end, which the German people have shown in such signal fashion during the last half-century. Moreover, the things of the spirit are even more important than the things of the body. We can well do without the hard intolerance and arid intellectual barrenness of what was worst in the theological systems of the past, but there has never been greater need of a high and fine religious spirit than at the present time.

HIDE-AND-SEEK POLITICS

THAT our whole representative system is in the hands of the "machine"; that the people do not in reality choose their representatives any longer, and that their representatives do not serve the general interest unless dragooned into doing so by extraordinary forces of agitation, but are controlled by personal and private influences; that there is no one anywhere whom we can hold publicly responsible, and that it is hide-and-seek who shall be punished, who rewarded, who preferred, who rejected,—that the processes of government amongst us, in short, are haphazard,—is the arraignment of the American people made by President Woodrow Wilson, of Princeton, in the *North American Review*. We set out as a nation "with one distinct object, namely, to put the control of government in the hands of the people," and, after experimenting for a hundred and thirty-odd years, we find we have no control, much less efficiency, and must begin all over again.

President Wilson admits frankly that "the machine is as yet an indispensable instrumentality of our politics"; it cannot be abolished "unless the circumstances are changed, and very radically changed at that." In asking the people to select all the officers of government they have been asked to do something too complicated for them; and, consequently, "it must be done for them by professionals." Thus, under present conditions, "the voters only choose as between the selections, the appointees, of the one party boss or the other. It is out of the question for them to make independent selections of their own." But, says President Wilson, "if the machine as bossed and administered is an outside power over which the voter has no control, the fault is with the system, not with the politicians." He, however, sees no reason to despair of representative government, "because the people are prevented by the system of elections from electing representatives of their own choice." The people of other countries are not so prevented; and President Wilson cites the city of Glasgow as an example. He says:

Glasgow is known as one of the best-governed cities in the world . . . and its government is not in any essential peculiar to itself. . . . Its administration is entirely in the hands of its municipal council, which has a membership of thirty-two. The mayor has no independent executive powers. He is merely chairman of the council and titular head of the city when it needs a public representative on formal occasions, when it welcomes guests or undertakes a ceremonious function. There is no upper and lower chamber of the council; it is a single body. It is not a legislature. No city council is.

. . . Its members are elected by the voters of the city by wards,—one councilman for each ward. The voter's connection with the government of the city is very simple. He votes for only one person, the councilman of his ward. That is the whole ticket.

There the voter does not need "the assistance of professional politicians to pick out a single candidate for a single conspicuous office." Moreover, the structure of the city's government is so simple that he can follow his representative throughout every vote and act of administration.

Certain American cities, following the example of Galveston, Texas, have secured from their State legislatures charters authorizing them to put their administration entirely in the hands of a small commission of five or six persons, and the results have in several cases been very satisfactory; but whether so small a body as five men wholly unaided can successfully manage the administration of a modern city sufficiently in detail to keep them clear of inefficiency and abuse remains to be seen. Probably a larger body of men will be required; but "that need not result in putting a greater burden on the voter and bringing the nominating machine again into existence as his indispensable assistant and ultimate master."

In President Wilson's opinion the short ballot is the short and open way by which we can return to representative government. What the voters of the country are now attempting is "not only impossible, but also undesirable, if we desire good government." The charter of the city of New York is cited as an example of a mere system of "obscurity and of inefficiency." "It disperses responsibility, multiplies elective offices beyond all reason or necessity, and makes both of the government itself and of its control by the voters a game of hide-and-seek in a labyrinth." What we need is a radical reform of our electoral system.

NEW FARMING METHODS AND HIGHER PRICES

WRITING in the *Popular Science Monthly* on the necessity of a reorganization of American farming methods, Prof. Homer C. Price says: "There is no danger of a shortage of food supplies in this country, but higher prices must prevail in order to develop the potential agricultural resources of the country." It will, we think, be a surprise to many of the readers of the REVIEW to learn that the average yield of wheat per acre in the United States is smaller than in France, Germany, or the United Kingdom. The actual figures are given in the following table:

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE YIELD OF WHEAT PER ACRE BY TEN-YEAR PERIODS FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS AND THE TOTAL PRODUCTION FOR 1908.

	Aver. yield per acre, 1888-97. Bushels.	Aver. yield per acre, 1898-1907. Bushels.	Total production. Bushels.
United Kingdom	30.1	32.6	55,585,000
Germany	22.7	28.4	138,442,000
France	17.6	20.8	310,526,000
United States	12.8	13.9	664,602,000

The fact that of the four countries cited the United States has the largest total production is due to the simple circumstance that our wheat area is nearly eight times greater than that of France, which comes next to us in point of acres under wheat cultivation. The most reliable figures available show that the number of acres per capita is as follows: United Kingdom, 1.70; Germany, 2.37; France, 3.40; United States (exclusive of Alaska and Philippines), 24.02. In 1900 there were in the United States 838,000,000 acres in farms, and since then about 15,000,000 acres have been added annually from the public lands. Indeed, practically all of the latter suitable for agricultural purposes have now been taken up. In some sections of the country farm lands have tripled in value within a few years.

Professor Price shows the enormous influence that certain changes in the methods of transportation, as well as the development of labor-saving machinery, have exerted on the agriculture of the country. For example, the refrigerator-car services have rendered possible the shipping of fruits, vegetables, and meats across the continent; and the results of labor-saving machinery are well illustrated by the following extract from the article under review: "If the present wheat crop of the United States were harvested by the method employed at the time of the Civil War it would require every man of military age in the United States to work for at least two weeks in wheat harvest." Naturally as labor-saving machinery is increased the proportion of population engaged in agriculture has decreased. Notwithstanding this, however, the per capita production of most agricultural products has advanced. The accom-

panying table shows that in several cases the increase is remarkable:

	Decade.				Period.
	1866-1875.	1876-1885.	1886-1895.	1896-1905.	1905-1908.
Wheat, bushels	6.2	8.3	7.4	7.8	7.9
Corn, bushels	24.6	30.3	27.5	28.4	31.8
Oats, bushels	6.9	9.1	10.7	10.6	9.8
Barley, bushels	.7	.9	1.1	1.3	1.9
Rye, bushels	.5	.5	.4	.4	.4
Potatoes, bushels	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.4
Cotton, pounds	37.8	51.4	57.8	65.5	70.0
Hay, tons	.63	.76	.86	.76	.74
Horses, number	.20	.21	.23	.20	.23
Milch cows, number	.25	.24	.25	.22	.24
Other cattle, number	.37	.47	.55	.49	.55
Swine, number	.69	.75	.73	.58	.64
Sheep, number	.80	.84	.68	.63	.64

But gratifying as this increase is, it has been accompanied by certain changes in agricultural conditions which, according to Professor Price, "make a reorganization of American farming methods absolutely necessary." The concentration of the population, due to the growth of cities, has "brought about new problems of food supply in furnishing the more perishable products, such as milk, vegetables, fruits, etc." Then, the exhaustion of the soil fertility of the farms of the older agricultural sections has rendered necessary a recourse to fertilizers. "The statistics of 1900 show that $55,000,000 worth of goods were used by the farmers of the United States" for this purpose. The increased prices for farm products "will increase their production and insure a supply sufficient for all needs for the future." In other words, high prices are to be depended on to make our farms more productive than they are at present.

There is just one gleam of sunshine for the consumer. The United States Geological Survey estimates "that 75,000,000 acres can be made available for agriculture by draining swamps." This land, Professor Price considers, would be much more fertile and much more productive than most of the land that is now being cultivated.

CITY EXPENDITURES IN EUROPE AND AMERICA

IT is somewhat remarkable how little the average citizen knows and how little he cares about the cost of the city government under which he lives. He may grumble a little at the amount of his taxes, but as for ascertaining whether the city revenues are economically and wisely applied the thought of so doing never enters his head. And yet municipal finances are of considerable importance. As Prof. Charles Edward Merriam remarks in the *University of Chicago Magazine:* "The social significance of the city is everywhere recognized; and the value of efficient city government in determining the length and breadth of the lives of its inhabitants is evident to the most casual observer." Professor Merriam, it may be mentioned, is a member of the City Council of Chicago and chairman of the Chicago Commission on Municipal Expenditures.

For the purposes of comparison between American and European cities, Professor Merriam divides revenues into "general" and "commercial." General revenues are those used to defray the cost of the exercise of general governmental functions, such as public health and safety, education and recreation. Commercial revenues are "those obtained in the exercise of industrial or semi-industrial governmental functions"; and we are told that "European cities generally receive a larger proportion of their income from municipal industries than do American cities," and they also receive "larger returns from public-service privileges." As regards general revenues "there is a striking difference between the amounts received from the central governments in Europe and the United States. In this country the amounts of such State grants are small, being usually in aid of school funds. In European cities a considerable portion of the general revenues is thus obtained."

Both at home and abroad, however, municipal revenues are derived chiefly from taxation. In England the personal property tax is not employed; the direct tax is levied upon real estate, and very little is secured through indirect taxes. In France direct taxes form about one-third of the total municipal tax revenues; the other two-thirds are derived from duties on foods and drinks mainly and from special local taxes. In Germany most of the direct tax is obtained from additions to the state income tax, next in importance being the real estate tax. In the cities of the United States "the principal source of revenue is the general property tax. . . . The largest amounts of indirect taxes come from licenses, the liquor trade furnishing the greatest percentage of such revenues."

Professor Merriam institutes his comparison of expenditures "on the basis of *per capita* disbursements"; and he has prepared

CITY EXPENDITURES: TABLE I

PER CAPITA ORDINARY EXPENDITURES

	Police	Fire Department	Health	Charities and Corrections	Miscellaneous Streets	Street Cleaning and Refuse Disposal	Street Lighting	Sewers	Municipal Industries	Schools	Libraries	Recreation
London	$1.92	$0.23	$0.17	$4.79	$2.21	$2.20	$0.43	$0.47	$1.01	$3.00	$0.15	$0.44
Paris	2.56	.26	.10	4.25	1.56	.89	.67	.50	.89	2.69	.24	.22
Berlin	2.90	.27	.07	2.63	.20	.52	.04	.69	1.13	3.89	.03	.29
Vienna	1.23	.16	.02	1.92	1.03	.45	.07	.25	2.71	3.69	.02	.34
Glasgow	.85	.12	.32	1.94	.38	.76	.58	.13	8.14	2.14	.04	.35
New York	3.52	1.82	.46	1.90	.72	1.49	.39	.19	1.47	6.08	.29	.65
Chicago	2.13	1.14	.13	.18	.19	.59	.19	.20	1.01	3.77	.14	.93
Philadelphia	2.26	.92	.24	1.20	.79	.83	.94	.09	1.22	3.89	.22	.50
St. Louis	2.43	1.62	.22	1.21	1.19	1.25	.79	.12	1.39	3.47	.11	.35
Boston	3.27	2.39	.33	2.89	1.95	1.73	1.29	.55	2.40	6.25	.57	1.70

CITY EXPENDITURES: TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GENERAL ORDINARY EXPENDITURES

	Police	Fire Department	Health	Charities and Corrections	Street Cleaning and Refuse Disposal	Street Lighting	Sewers	Miscellaneous Streets	Schools	Libraries	Recreation
London	10.5	1.4	1.03	29.0	8.2	2.6	2.9	13.7	18.6	.95	2.7
Paris	15.7	1.5	.59	25.0	5.4	3.9	2.9	9.3	15.9	1.3	1.3
Berlin	26.7	1.5	.50	19.0	6.6	.3	4.8	.1+	26.4	.18	2.0
Vienna	10.2	1.3	.19	15.9	8.9	.6	2.0	8.6	29.4	2.0	2.8
Glasgow	9.7	1.4	3.70	22.6	6.9	6.7	1.8	4.4	24.9	.4	4.1
New York	17.0	7.7	1.6	8.3	2.4	2.2	1.0	3.9	29.	1.4	2.0
Chicago	17.0	8.9	8.9	6.9	5.4	1.5	1.7	1.7	36	.7	2.9
Philadelphia	17.0	6.7	1.9	7.0	3.7	7.4	.69	6.6	23	1.4	3.0
St. Louis	16.0	9.4	1.5	7.2	3.7	5.5	1.5	8.2	22	.7	1.7
Boston	12.0	8.7	1.2	12.2	8.8	5.1	2.2	7.7	23.7	1.8	4.2

the accompanying two valuable tables, showing respectively (1) the *per capita* ordinary expenditures and (2) the percentage distribution of general ordinary expenditures. Some of the items are both curious and interesting.

Although the *per capita* expenditures for recreation in Glasgow and St. Louis are identical, yet the relative importance of this function in the former city is about two and one-half times its relative importance in the latter city. . . . American cities seem to lay more stress on fire protection and less on charities and corrections than do European cities. . . . Boston and London seem to have more in common as regards the importance of health administration than do Boston and Chicago; New York and Vienna apparently agree in ascribing more importance to schools than do Glasgow and Philadelphia.

FINANCE AND BUSINESS

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH

SMALL AMERICAN BONDS FOR SMALL FRENCH INVESTORS

THE gentlemen who think in millions still turn up their noses at the American investor of small means, as if he were possessed of intelligence equally small.

The news that $70,000,000 of American railroad bonds were being floated last month in Paris had the result of greatly relieving the money market, turning foreign exchange in our favor, and postponing further exports of gold.

One feature of these bonds had much deeper and more permanent interest. They were to be made available in denominations as low as *five dollars,*—to the French.

Over here the offerings of such bonds are read only by the folks who can invest "$1000 and multiples thereof."

But why should the American citizen who knows these railroads directly and who could and ought to buy a few $5, or $10, or $100 bonds be utterly ignored? Why is it not most important to educate him as to the sound control and fair earning power of certain corporations and to give him a chance to share in it?

"It is," one of the big railroad bankers will tell you. But he will instantly add that the bookkeeping expenses of cutting bonds into small pieces is prohibitory in this country. Americans of small means, he declares, will buy "fake" stocks and bonds that promise enormous dividends and interest, but will not take the reasonable yield that a bona fide enterprise, like a successful railroad, can afford to offer.

Hence flourishing times for the get-rich-quick man, with his $1, $5, and $10 shares of stock in fictitious companies.

Hence many millions a year lost to savers who want to invest and who naturally are more apt to buy things they see prominently advertised in familiar language and small denominations.

And hence the drifting into a separate class of the men of high finance, though of all citizens they most ought to share with the people their ambitions to found great enterprises, their problems, their successes,—and their profits.

In France more than half a million "little savers" have an average investment of only 1000 francs ($200). More than a million and a half get a total income from *investments* of only 30 francs a year.

In short, the backbone of the French nation will be the clients of the Comptoir National d'Escompte, the Société Generale and Morgan, Harjes & Co., offerers of the $10,000,000 C., C. C. & St. L. bonds,—the Banque Union Parisienne and Crédit Mobilier, with its $10,000,000 of "'Frisco" bonds, and the Consortium des Grands Etablissements de Crédit, underwriters of the $50,000,000 bond issue of the "St. Paul."

WHAT THE CEMENT BUSINESS IS NOT

IT is related of Professor Huxley that, having asked a student for a definition of the word "crab," and having been answered that "the crab is a red fish that walks backwards," he commented on the answer as a very good one, with only three objections: (1) The crab is not red; (2) it is not a fish; (3) it does not walk backwards.

This comes to mind in connection with the wide advertising last month of a cement promotion, concerning which many readers of the REVIEW have already written. Here is one statement:

". . . that is why the Portland cement mills are grinding and burning, *day in and day out,* twenty-four hours a day, and the accidental stopping of the machinery for an hour is regarded as a disaster by the *fortunate stockholders* who are earning *profits so large as to be incredible* without examination of the facts on the following pages."

To remark that this is not so would be pitifully inadequate. Leading "objections" in the Huxley manner could be shown by arranging a few quotations from an official trade report in the *Wall Street Journal* of April 28, as follows:

(1) "The average selling price of cement for more than a year has been *below actual cost* of production." (2) "*If it were not for the duty* of 32 cents a barrel it would be

difficult for American manufacturers to compete with the foreign trade." (3) "During 1909 not over 60 *per cent.* of the companies' capacity was able to work."

Everybody in the cement business knows to what straits it has fallen. Now that a new wave of promotion is rising it would seem a good time to remind readers of the peculiar nature of this business.

"It is a sort of brickyard proposition," an old-time cement manufacturer remarked the other day. In nearly every State limestone can be found. There is usually little trouble in raising enough capital to start a mill that will mix this stone with shale or clay and grind it fine,—the result being more or less workable Portland cement.

But the radius of distribution from that mill at a profit is limited. In the cost of this bulky article to the consumer an exorbitant part is played by freight rates.

A collar and cuff factory, for instance, can regulate its output according to the demand and supply of pretty much the whole nation. But a cement mill is fettered by the conditions within what may be only a small portion of its own State.

CONCRETE BOATS AND OTHER THINGS

"A BOAT built of concrete will not only float, but has a greater carrying capacity and is more durable and even lighter than a strongly constructed wooden boat." Thus a newspaper item of the 10th of last month from Washington announced the launching of a 60,000-pound barge, built of reinforced concrete, by the Panama Canal Commission. Two others were on the way. It was thought that these vessels would not be affected by sea worms, marine vegetation, or rot.

This interesting new form of that plastic Portland cement combination known as concrete is a reminder of the thousandfold uses the material has to-day. It is this popularity, in fact, that the promoters of cement propositions have so energetically coined to their own advantage.

Travelers around the manufacturing sections are growing familiar with factory buildings that are constructed of concrete. These "monolithic," or one-piece buildings do not shake, no matter how many different kinds of machines are running on different floors, or on the same floor. They do not take as long to build as the "brick-steel" and other customary types. They save the manufacturer most of his fire insurance. The "piers" between the windows can be much smaller. This means more light for the operators. Also the walls can be thinner, saving space.

The greatest builders of to-day,—railroads,—have naturally made much use of a material that does not have to be painted to keep it from rusting, like steel; and that instead of deteriorating within thirty or forty years gathers strength with age.

Roman concrete structures are standing to-day after 2000 years, and are still pronounced indestructible.

Bridges that do not sag, tunnels through the great mountains, and subways under the great cities that yield neither to fire nor water; retaining walls, culverts, stations, grain elevators, storage reservoirs, docks,—these are a few of the services that railroad engineers have found for concrete.

CEMENT HOMES

NOW that the price of lumber in the larger cities has reached a point where a patriotic American is ashamed to think of an ancestor who would fell trees just to clear his front yard, the builder of a small home must think several times over the choice of a material. More and more he is thinking of cement.

The man with a couple of thousand dollars, for instance, who wants a house that is his own, and looks it,—who rebels against the necessity of having it resemble every other $2000 house in town, just because the architect declares that is the only way to get in the furnace and the right number of windows,—that man welcomes the use of a material as adaptable as cement.

The plan for a suburban house that recently won first prize from the Portland Cement Manufacturers' Association presented an individual, indeed a striking appearance, —miles removed from the jig-saw atrocities on the average "$2000 per" suburban street. Yet here is the total estimated bill:

Excavation	$40.00
Concrete and cement work	890.00
Carpentry	355.00
Trim	450.00
Painting, etc	80.00
Hardware	50.00
Tin work	30.00
Wiring, etc	60.00
	$1,955.00

Cubic contents, 15,086 feet, including porches.

The other extreme is on view anywhere between Palm Beach and Newport, where

wealthy people's residences abound. The writer recalls a mansion about an eighth of a mile long, whose porticos, façades, pergolas, terraces, fountains, balustrades of the Italian garden,—all were built of uniform concrete, and with a harmony that many other expensive efforts have not attained.

Rich and poor find a house worth studying which will admit no rats or mice or bugs, and which demands neither repairs nor paint.

The commuter who loves to potter around his home can get literal "solid satisfaction" in cement construction, aided by a couple of wheelbarrows, a screen, and a measuring box. He can make porch steps that do not rot or a swimming pool with the same virtue. He can build a chicken house into which rats or weasels enter not, or a fireplace molded after any pattern that appeals to the artistic taste of the lady of the house.

Or he acts the dentist, as it were, for his crippled trees, lining the cavities with hot creosote, or tar, and then filling them with concrete.

The farmer accustomed to build for himself on a larger scale is going in more and more every year for sanitary concrete cow-barns, for concrete dairies that can really be kept clean, for fences and fence-posts that are fire-proof and everlasting, for concrete water-troughs, feed boxes and feed floors, for water tanks and silos, and wind-mill foundations that do not rot or need repairs.

WHY CEMENT COMPANIES FAIL

IT would seem natural enough if the growing multiplicity of uses for cement had really brought about this situation, described in another advertisement of the promotion already quoted from:

"Compared with railroads (street and steam) and other great enterprises, *the failure of a cement company is rare indeed.*"

The brute facts are, however, that *only five out of a hundred* of the cement companies chartered ever pay even a fair return to their original stockholders! We refer to records by Edwin C. Eckel, cement statistician to the United States Geological Survey.

The cause lies in the one word, over-production,—and the cause of that can also be told in one word,—overenthusiasm,—such as one might expect from the circulation of prospectus after prospectus as rose-colored as the one in question.

For a history of companies that have failed a good man to write to is E. W. Stanfield, of Iola, Kan., a special authority on this branch of the subject.

On February 15 of last year, in his pamphlet called "The Cement Bubble,—Has It Burst?" he gave a list of twenty-six companies being promoted in the Middle West. This list brought up to date shows that of the twenty-six only seven have been built. One is building. The rest, in Mr. Stanfield's expressive monosyllable, have "quit."

We trust the promoters sold less than the total $7,800,000 of the stocks and bonds of those eighteen "quitters."

Two years ago Mr. Stanfield got up a map showing in *black* the 112 American cement plants that were "going." In *red* was marked the location of promotions, largely in the paper stage. These numbered 116.

Since then no less than nine of the 112 actual plants have gone bankrupt or become additionally bonded in consequence of the pressing need for more cash.

Omitting the plentiful cases of fraud, the main cause of trouble is the oversanguine temperament of promoters without long and successful cement or banking experience.

Returning to the particular advertising referred to above, one may indicate some of its discrepancies without any reference to the prospects of the plant in operation, but with suggestions useful to all investors who find themselves attracted to new promotions depicted in such unspotted rosy hues.

If, for instance, one submits to the editor of any trade paper the references of the advertisement in question to the success of existing cement companies, many surprises will appear. It will turn out that one of the model companies exhibited to admiration by the advertisement as having paid "26 per cent. in dividends recently" had, in fact, omitted its dividend entirely at the last meeting! Its directors recommend that published reports of earnings be discontinued, explaining that one of its plants had operated less than nine months last year, while another had not been run at all.

Or the editor would probably suggest, as a leading fact, that a rival plant to the advertised one is in course of construction; that its capacity is to be much larger, sufficient, indeed, to supply the entire territory alone; and that its backers are the "insiders" of a long-established Eastern cement company who themselves, without going to the public at all, have already raised the sum of $1,000,000 to build said plant.

Yet that remarkable advertising declares

over and over again that no rival cement plants can be found "within hundreds of miles"!

The description of a new financial promotion is a dangerous thing for the ready advertising writer to attempt without the restraining experience of some old-line banking house,—some responsible persons who understand the difference in nature between investment securities and soaps, or breakfast foods, or summer resorts, or other fitter objects of "boosting."

THE CRAZY RUSH FOR RUBBER STOCKS IN LONDON

IN vain the London newspapers have been begging and begging English investors to sell their stocks in rubber plantations,—or, at least, not to buy any more.

Said investors have replied by scrambling for every new issue, like beggar-boys after pennies.

For instance, one of the great London banks was to receive applications the other day for four new rubber companies "at the opening," 10 a.m. By 8.30 the steps were crowded. At 9.30 the scrub-woman opened the door and was knocked over by the rush. At 10 there was a riot, the weaker would-be speculators trodden under foot, while the stronger ones hurled their application blanks, with checks attached, over the railings.

There happened to be a Rugby football team among the bank clerks. It sallied forth and managed to save the lives of those present. As for their money,—time will tell.

Scenes like this several times a week have driven the conservative, weighty financial journalists to despair. They have been warning the English nation that its present speculative insanity has never been equaled except by the high pitch of the tulip-growing craze in the middle of the seventeenth century, or of the South Sea bubble in 1710, or of the South African mining stock boom fifteen years ago.

But warnings have been of no avail. Given a shop girl who subscribed for one share of "Selangor" rubber stock at its flotation price of 2 shillings (48 cents), and who reads in the paper a few weeks later that her share has jumped to $20.10,—how many "financial authorities" will it take to restrain the other girls in that shop from buying as many 2-shilling shares as they can pay for as soon as the newspapers advertise some new rubber company prospectus?

Then remember the errand-boy whose five shares of "Pataling," that cost him $2, had soared to $15, the hair-dresser's apprentice whose ten shares of "Linggi" soon showed him $130 instead of the $4.80 he paid for them, and the lucky bank clerk who had put his £5 of salary into ten shares of "Bukit Rajah," already worth £30, and on the way up.

No wonder that the total shop-girl, apprentice, and clerk constituency is snatching up every share offered to it of these companies with the Kiplingesque titles.

The "popular prices,"—£1 down to 2 shillings per share,—into which the promoters have been splitting their offerings fall within the reach of all. Our friends, the messenger-boy and bank clerk, get added pride from money made in the same propositions that are greedily snapped up by the smart clubmen of Piccadilly and Pall Mall. The Edinburgh barber and grocer feel even richer from their rubber plantation profits shared in by the Duchess of Argyle,—one of the original promoters.

Ex-footballers are in demand as brokers for the stoutness of their ribs and their ability to keep footing in the mad crowd. Double and treble forces of clerks work in these brokers' offices all night, checking up subscriptions and purchases.

Not only do most of the investors know nothing about rubber,—a large number of the promoters know little more. That is the most charitable way to put it. Some of the new companies are officered by men who have never seen Ceylon or Burmah, boasting of trees so young that they cannot bear for several years, or so old that they will never bear again, or actually not planted in the rubber area at all.

THE FUTURE OF RUBBER MORTGAGED

WITHIN ten years the world may have 50 or 100 per cent. more commercial rubber to use each year than it has now.

No less an authority than President Colt, of the United States Rubber Company, the largest manufacturer of rubber goods in the country, declared last month that "rubber cannot be maintained indefinitely at a price of three to ten times the cost of production."

Blissful oblivion seems to have seized upon the authors of most of the recent rubber prospectuses as to the length of time a young rubber tree must be let alone.

People who have spent their lives in the

business point out that the rubber from a young tree does not amount to anything for six or seven years. Whereas most promoters will have it that the tree gets to full bearing within five years or so.

As a matter of fact, the tree's heaviest production is not reached until the ninth or tenth year. Thus a five-year tree might not yield more than a pound, while at eight years there will be 2 or 3 pounds, and at ten years 5 or 6 pounds.

Now this whole business of planting rubber trees on a large scale in Ceylon, Burmah, Java, Borneo, and the Malay States is something new. In the Malay States, for instance, only about 14 per cent. of the 21,000,000 trees planted had been tapped last year.

The wild trees in the forests of Brazil have heretofore supplied about two-thirds of the markets of the world. One-half the total output has come from the Amazon Valley alone.

Again: If the American business men and farmers continue prosperous enough to keep up the cry for automobile tires that has been the basis of the rubber boom there will be even more planting in the Far East. The rubber area is a wide one. Here are the tons of output from Brazil for recent years:

1903-04	30,590	1906-07	38,050
1904-05	33,065	1907-08	36,581
1905-06	34,480	1908-09	38,095

To the remaining third of the world's supply the artificially planted trees in the Far East will this year add only some 5000 tons. But even allowing for overwhelming failures in the case of the many stupidly or criminally promoted companies, the new "plantations" of Ceylon and Burmah, and the rest, can be relied upon by 1920 for perhaps 35,000 tons,—practically doubling the output of Brazil itself.

Moreover, the rubber pickers who brave the Brazilian forests are now penetrating only short distances. With railroad and other transportation extension the supply from these native trees can be multiplied.

LETTING THE OUTSIDERS IN

TO the amazement of the brokers' world, the directors of the big "People's Gas" Company of Chicago suddenly announced last year that they intended to declare a dividend at the next meeting, three months away, *at an advanced rate.*

"Then why don't they keep it to themselves?" marveled the cynics. For directors owning large blocks of this $72,000,000 concern to treat the little stockholders as equals was, sad to say, not the practice of such large institutions.

But the news was true. The stock had been a 6 per cent. investment. Every quarter the holders had been receiving checks for $1.50 a share. The next quarter, after that announcement, checks came at the rate of $1.75.

They have been so coming for a year now. It seems a good time to give credit where it is due. If more directors acted thus as trustees, and fewer as trust-betrayers, the corporation problem would shrink.

Recently the $60,000,000 American Car & Foundry Company and the $25,000,000 Pressed Steel Car Company have announced similar policies,—the building up of large reserves for the special purpose of equalizing dividends over bad years.

Last year the president of the American Beet Sugar Company denied himself the kind of chance that many corporation presidents seize. The common stock was bobbing up and down in the market because of persistent rumors that it was at last to begin paying dividends. Just in advance of the directors' meeting at which it was to be officially announced that the rumors were false, President Duval issued a flat denial. The public benefited accordingly.

It is, after all, the vicious system, not individual degeneracy, that ails the average corporation director. He knows he owes every stockholder all information upon which he himself may act.

If to conceal business secrets from rivals or for other reasons he must suppress certain facts, it is criminal for him to use that news for his own advantage secretly.

That such a moral code need not interfere with satisfactory earnings every one knows who has followed careers like that of Henry Walters and his associates of the Atlantic Coast Line and allied enterprises.

Betterment is the order of the day. Returning to the gas company of Chicago, Mr. C. Norman Fay, formerly its president, wrote last year in the *Outlook* of the early speculators in this stock, who ran "the gamut of prices up and down from 29 to 61 in '89, 32 to 51 in '90, 34 to 71 in '91, 71 to 95 in '92, 94 to 39 in '93, 58 to 79 in '94, 78 to 49 in '95, 78 to 44 in '96, 73 to 108 in '97. By the latest named year the earnings had caught up with the capitalization, the combination had been legalized, and dividends came regularly."

THE NEW BOOKS

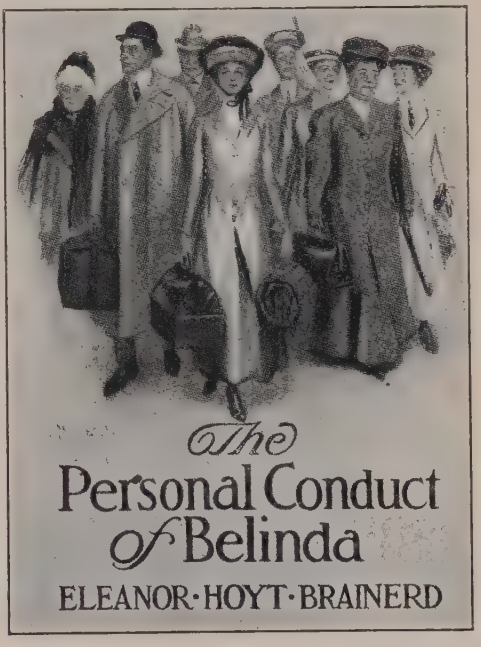
SOME OF THE SEASON'S FICTION

MRS. HUMPHRY WARD'S latest novel is a love story woven around the theme of how Canada tested the soul of an Englishman. The book, which is published in this country under the title "Lady Merton, Colonist,"[1] was originally called "Canadian Born." It is the story of the awakening of Lady Elizabeth Merton, a proud product of the culture, refinement, and luxury of aristocratic English life, when she meets a resolute "outdoor man" doing pioneer work in the vast Canadian West. Her English lover, transported to the freeness and bigness of British North American life, fails to measure up to the opportunity, and, while a talented, scholarly, and generally good-fellow at home, is shown in Canada to be a singularly insignificant person, "compounded of priggishness and simple futility." The final triumph of the woman's deepest instincts makes a climax of elevation and dramatic feeling. There is very little of plot, but some fine description, and the reader can see that Mrs. Ward is reflecting her own feelings when she writes of her heroine: "Her sympathies, her imagination were all trembling towards the Canadians no less than towards their country."

A new novel by Selma Lagerlöf is a noteworthy literary event. This book, entitled "The Girl from the Marsh Croft,"[2] is the first piece of fiction issued since last year, when the Swedish authoress received the Nobel prize for literature. It is the story of a girl who has transgressed the moral law and whose innate modesty and goodness are shown to be the redemptive qualities which finally win her the love of an honest man. The story is characterized by Miss Lagerlöf's fine, simple, direct, and courageous literary style. The personalities seem to live outside the printed page. There are other stories in the same volume, notably "The Legend of the Christmas Rose" and "The Story of a Story." In the latter is given a record of the inspiration and growth of Miss Lagerlöf's greatest work, "The Story of Gösta Berling."

A moving story of a woman's desperate battle to keep her self-respect and her love for her husband, worked out with considerable literary skill, is Mrs. Helen R. Martin's "The Crossways."[3] Some years ago, it will be remembered, Mrs. Martin attained a literary reputation for her story "Tillie, a Mennonite Maid," which was a tale of the Pennsylvania Dutch. "The Crossways" tells of the struggle of a cultured Southern woman, the wife of a physician, who, tender and idealistic before marriage, shows afterwards many of the unpleasant traits supposed to be characteristic of these same Pennsylvania Dutch. With the advent of the child comes the final battle and the woman's victory. There is much quaint humor in the pictures of life and character and a good deal of strength in the development of the conjugal battle.

In some respects "The Undesirable Governess,"[4] the last of the three novels remaining unpublished at the death of the author, Francis Marion Crawford, is quite different from any of the author's other works. It is a story of England, and largely humorous in treatment. There is a great deal of clever description in the way Mr. Crawford has worked out the theme, which is concerned with the desire of



("I won't stand for it a minute," said Belinda. "He's come out to be personally conducted, and personally conducted he's going to be")

an English lady to secure as governess for her children a woman "whose mental attributes shall be above reproach, but whose physical charms shall not be such as to win for her the affection of any of the men of the family."

There is a good deal of fine humor and delightful swift-moving description in Eleanor Hoyt Brainerd's new novel, "The Personal Conduct of Belinda."[5] This typical young American girl piloted a party through Europe and had various interesting and quaint experiences in the doing of this unconventional task.

"The Education of Uncle Paul"[6] was accom-

[1] Lady Merton, Colonist. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Doubleday, Page & Co. 351 pp., ill. $1.50.

[2] The Girl from the Marsh Croft. By Selma Lagerlöf. Little, Brown & Co. 277 pp. $1.50.

[3] The Crossways. By Helen R. Martin. Century. 311 pp. $1.50.

[4] The Undesirable Governess. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan. 227 pp., ill. $1.50.

[5] The Personal Conduct of Belinda. By Eleanor Hoyt Brainerd. Doubleday, Page & Co. 307 pp., ill. $1.50.

[6] The Education of Uncle Paul. By Algernon Blackwood. Holt. 340 pp. $1.50.

plished in a few months after he had reached his forty-fifth year of bachelorhood by association with a lot of small nephews and nieces, who led him into the world of children's fancy and sentiment and made him wise with the wisdom of babes. The author, Algernon Blackwood, who has already written a successful

HON. FREDERICK LANDIS
(Author of "The Glory of His Country")

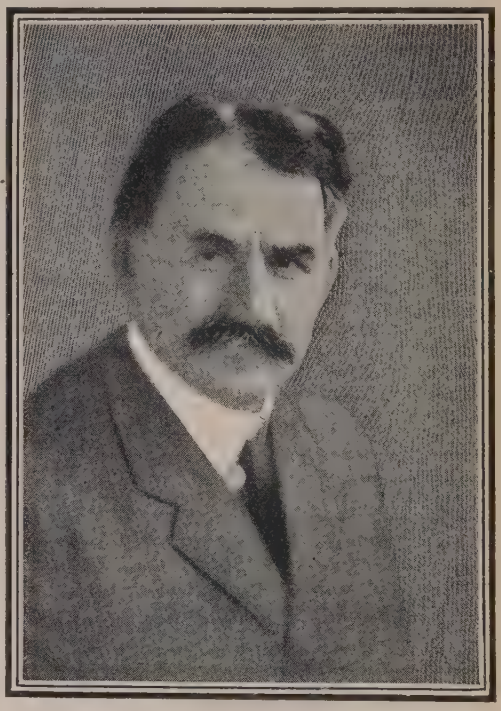
novel in England ("John Silence"), has a keen sense of beauty, a wealth of poetic invention, and a command of delicious humor. He dedicates his book to all those "children between the ages of eight and eighty" who have never "sojourned in the land between yesterday and to-morrow."

Only those who have lived in Russia or traveled extensively in that vast country can fully appreciate the accuracy of the portrayals of life at court and on the great estates which are given in "Snow-Fire,"[1] the new novel by the anonymous author of that now famous book, "The Martyrdom of an Empress." "Snow-Fire" is a story of court intrigue and the difference between social classes. The love plot is dramatically worked out, and the work has the same literary finish that has marked the other novels by the same author.

"The Glory of His Country"[2] is a tale that makes vivid the finest type of patriotic self-sacrifice. The scene, characters, and plot are American, Middle Western, and modern. The author, ex-Congressman Frederick Landis, may have put into the story some of his own youthful experiences. Of that we are not sure, but the style could not have been more vivacious or natural if the book had been an autobiography. It is delightful reading and wholly free from even a suggestion of dullness,—which is more than can be said of many of the past spring's "best sellers." Mr. Landis is one of that gifted Hoosier family which has for several years been brilliantly represented in the federal judiciary and in the national House of Representatives.

"The Angel of Lonesome Hill"[3] is another of Mr. Landis' brief but effective stories. It is of ordinary magazine length and can be read at a sitting, but it makes its appeal none the less forcibly. It is one of the few instances in American fiction in which a living ex-President has figured.

Hamlin Garland's "Cavanagh: Forest Ranger,"[4] is a clear presentation in story form of some of the problems confronting the Forest Service. As an interpretation of the life and ambitions of that fine body of men who care for



HAMLIN GARLAND
(Author of "Cavanagh: Forest Ranger")

the nation's forests in the Far West the book is well worth while. Gifford Pinchot supplies an introduction.

It is a real pleasure to pick up a love story so pure and lofty in sentiment, so closely woven in construction, and so nearly perfect in its literary style and treatment as F. W. Bain's "A Mine of Faults."[5] It is the story of an imag-

[1] Snow-Fire. Harpers. 369 pp., ill. $1.50.
[2] The Glory of His Country. By Frederick Landis. Scribners. 226 pp. $1.
[3] The Angel of Lonesome Hill. By Frederick Landis. Scribners. 40 pp., ill. 50 cents.
[4] Cavanagh: Forest Ranger. By Hamlin Garland. Harpers. 301 pp., ill. $1.50.
[5] A Mine of Faults. By F. W. Bain. Putnams. 148 pp. $1.25.

inary kingdom in the Orient and treats of the development of the love-spell cast over a world-conquering king by the daughter of the monarch whose kingdom is invaded by the hero. The loveliness and arts of the heroine, who finally becomes the victim of her own wiles, are delightfully set forth by the author, who claims that he has merely translated the story from the original manuscript. It would be seductive as a translation; as an original creation it is even more delightful.

A strong, if somewhat hastily written romance is Meredith Nicholson's "The Lords of High Decision."[1] This story of the Pittsburg of 1909 combines intensity, strenuousness, ideals, and love-making. There are four colored illustrations by Arthur I. Keller.

TRAVEL AND OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS

The spring publishing season brings to the reviewer's notice an increasing number of books devoted to some phase of "the great outdoors." It would probably be most appropriate to begin with mention of Lieut. J. P. Müller's "Fresh Air Book."[2] This little study of physical culture by an ex-lieutenant in the Danish army attempts to set forth a new system which does not idolize muscle. The author desires, he says, to show how by an understanding and proper use of the benefits of fresh air the human body may be given health, strength, and beauty, inside and out.

A vivid, appealing monograph on "swimming,"[3] by Edwin Tenney Brewster, aims (so the author tells us) to set forth the whole art of swimming, both new and old, chiefly for the benefit not of athletes but of "women, the middle aged, and the timid."

The story of the inception and development of children's gardens[4] is now told in book form by Henry G. Parsons, director of the department of school gardens of New York University. The book is illustrated from photographs.

A more exhaustive work on the subject of school gardens is the monograph by Dr. M. Louise Greene,[5] which has just been brought out by the Charities Publication Committee (one of the Russell Sage Foundation enterprises). This book covers all sorts and conditions of garden work done for the educational value to the child,—not only the school garden as it is ordinarily understood but school farms, vacant-lot gardens, back-yard and front-yard patches. It considers efforts made all over the country in this direction. The illustrations, of which there are many, are from photographs.

Two years ago Mr. and Mrs. C. William Beebe, both ornithologists of international reputation, made a noteworthy trip through Venezuela in search of new and rare birds. A second expedition included British Guiana in its scope. The results of these two trips have been described in a volume, "Our Search for a Wilderness,"[6] which is an account of various adventures, illustrated with many photographs taken by the authors. Mr. Beebe, it will be remembered, is Curator of Ornithology in the

"THE GRAY MASTER"
(Frontispiece—reduced—from "Kings in Exile")

New York Zoological Park and author of a number of books on bird life.

The Beebes, however, are not the only recent explorers of the Orinoco region who have made a book out of their adventures. Mr. H. J. Mozans has also taken a prolonged vacation in Venezuela, Colombia, and the Guianas, and writes a vivid story of what he saw, adding historical comparisons in a volume entitled "Up the Orinoco and Down the Magdalena."[7] His book is also copiously illustrated from photographs.

One of Charles G. D. Roberts' collections of fascinating animal stories comes to us under the title "Kings in Exile."[8] Mr. Roberts has an amazing faculty for making us see the personalities of animals. This collection includes stories of foxes, wolves, bears, mountain lions, moose, and seals.

Mr. Charles Frederick Holder's "Recollections of a Sportsman on the Pacific Coast"[9] deals largely with fishing in the ocean and in the mountain streams. There is some good de-

[1] The Lords of High Decision. By Meredith Nicholson. Doubleday, Page & Co. 503 pp., ill. $1.50.
[2] The Fresh Air Book. By J. P. Müller. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 152 pp., ill. 85 cents.
[3] Swimming. By Edwin Tenney Brewster. Houghton Mifflin. 95 pp., ill. $1.
[4] Children's Gardens for Pleasure, Health, and Education. By Henry G. Parsons. Sturgis & Walton Company. 226 pp., ill. $1.
[5] Among School Gardens. By M. Louise Greene. New York: Charities Publication Committee. 388 pp., ill. $1.25.
[6] Our Search for a Wilderness. By Mary B. and C. William Beebe. Holt. 408 pp., ill. $2.75.
[7] Up the Orinoco and Down the Magdalena. By H. J. Mozans. D. Appleton & Co. 439 pp., ill. $3.
[8] Kings in Exile. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Macmillan. 299 pp., ill. $1.50.
[9] Recollections of a Sportsman on the Pacific Coast. By Charles Frederick Holder. Putnam. 399 pp., ill. $2.

HARRY A. FRANCK
(Author of "A Vagabond Journey Around the World")

scriptive writing in this book, which is illustrated from photographs. The frontispiece is a view of ex-Forester Gifford Pinchot and the novelist Steward Edward White trolling for swordfish in the Pacific fifty miles out from Los Angeles.

A collection of stories of bears,—chiefly black,—by William H. Wright, begins with "The Story of Ben,"[1] the famous black bear cub whose characteristics and adventures have been set forth in more than one magazine story.

Another account of wild animals partly tamed, particularly bears, is Edward Breck's "Wilderness Pets at Camp Buckshaw."[2] Mr. Breck knows how to tell a good story and to illustrate it with convincing photographs.

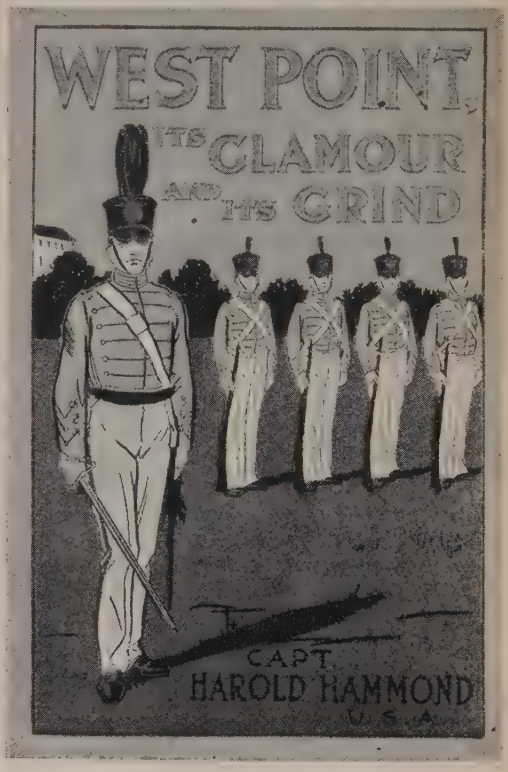
In the American Nature Series we have "The Care of Trees,"[3] by Bernhard E. Fernow, dean of the faculty of forestry at the University of Toronto. This is an exhaustive study of domestic trees for lawn, street, or park. The book is copiously illustrated.

A series of leisurely literary studies of the woods and the denizens thereof make up a little book, sketchily illustrated, by Winthrop Packard, which is entitled "Woodland Paths."[4]

A collection of stories about golf and other outdoor sports, entitled "Making Good,"[5] contains extracts from the writings of F. H. Spearman, Van Tassel Sutphen, Poultney Bigelow, and others.

In "A Vagabond Journey Around the World,"[6] Harry A. Franck tells how he, a young university man, without any money except what he earned on the way, made a journey around the world. Impelled by the instincts of a literary vagabond and gifted with the truly Yankee trait of being at home wherever he found himself, Mr. Franck acquired experiences that have enabled him to give a remarkably vivid picture of native life in strange corners of the world. His trip led him through most of Europe, through Egypt and Palestine, Ceylon, Burma, India, Siam, and Japan. The story is told in a simple, vivid way and is supplemented by snapshot views from a kodak.

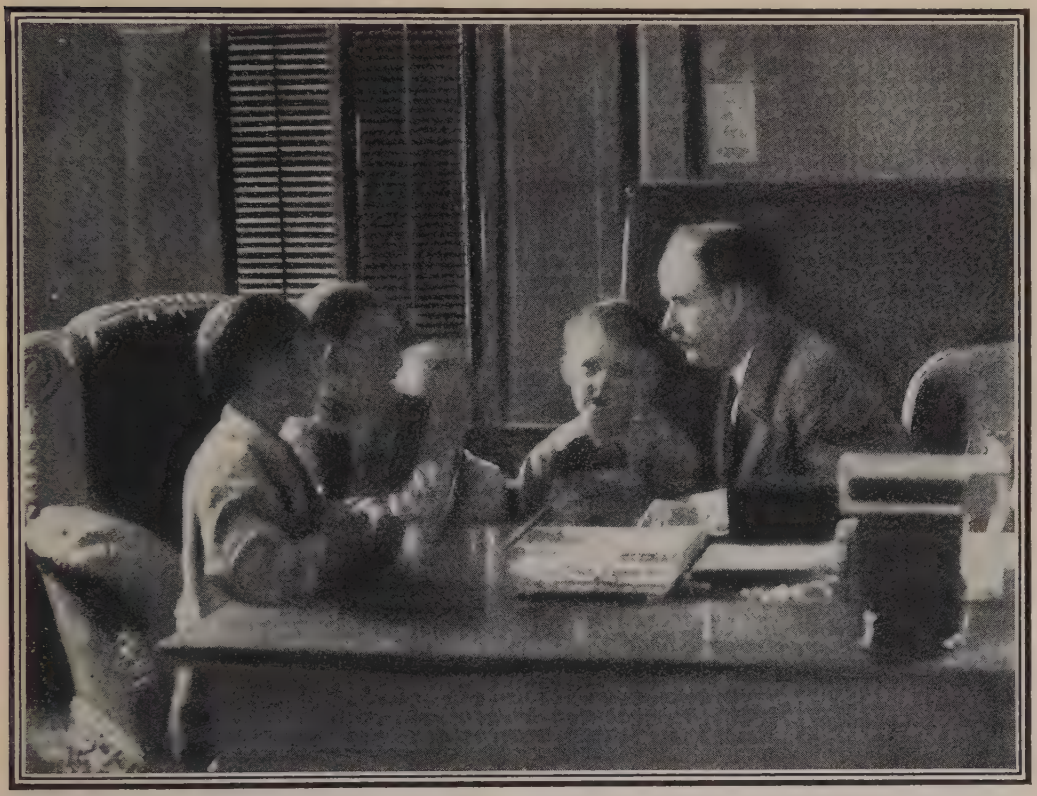
At last we have a book which does not hesitate to announce itself under the title "Play,"[7] and that without an apologetic sub-title. The



COVER DESIGN OF CAPTAIN HAMMOND'S ACCOUNT OF LIFE AT THE MILITARY ACADEMY

author, Emmett D. Angell, of the department of physical education in the University of Wisconsin and instructor in games at the Harvard Summer School in Physical Training, believes that "there are no living Americans worth mentioning who do not appreciate the importance

[1] The Black Bear. By William H. Wright. Scribners. 127 pp., ill. $1.
[2] Wilderness Pets at Camp Buckshaw. By Edward Breck. Houghton Mifflin. 240 pp., ill. $1.50.
[3] The Care of Trees. By B. E. Fernow. Holt. 392 pp., ill. $2.
[4] Woodland Paths. By Winthrop Packard. Small, Maynard & Co. 289 pp., ill. $1.20.
[5] Making Good. Harpers. 213 pp., ill. 60 cents.
[6] A Vagabond Journey Around the World. By Harry A. Franck. Century. 502 pp., ill. $3.50.
[7] Play. By Emmett D. Angell. Little, Brown & Co. 190 pp., ill. $1.50.



YOUNG DELINQUENTS BEFORE JUDGE BEN LINDSEY, IN HIS CHAMBERS, DENVER, COLORADO

and necessity of play during childhood and youth." The material contained in this book, he tells us, is the result of many years' intimate experience with playgrounds, the school-room, college, and gymnasium.

Capt. Harold Hammond, U. S. A., in "West Point, Its Glamour and Its Grind,"[1] pictures the daily life at our national Military Academy in a way that cannot fail to interest every boy whose ambition is some day to become a cadet. There is more real knowledge of the academy and its ways to be gained from a perusal of Captain Hammond's book than from any other printed source of information with which we are acquainted.

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS

The autobiography of Judge Ben Lindsey, who founded the Children's Court in Denver and exposed the political rottenness of Colorado, is one of the most stirring and powerful stories. After running serially in *Everybody's Magazine* during the past year the material has been revised and edited by Mr. Harvey J. O'Higgins, under the constant supervision of Judge Lindsey himself, and published in book form. Judge Lindsey's calm, clear, yet inspiring account of his fight against the powers of darkness in politics and society to better the conditions of the city boy reads almost like an epic. The book, under the title "The Beast"[2] (this appellation referring to the organized opposition), is a story of achievement. Without money or powerful friends, or even a dominant personality, this man has succeeded in writing upon the statute books of Colorado laws that have been copied around the world.

The influence of Sir Philip Sidney,[3] the English courtier and knight of the days of Queen Elizabeth, was not only very great in his own day but it may be said to have permeated all European history. An attempt to present a true picture of this brilliant figure, who was at the same time "noble, prig, and bigot," is made by Percy Addleshaw in a biographical study brought out in England and imported by the Putnams. The book is illustrated with portraits.

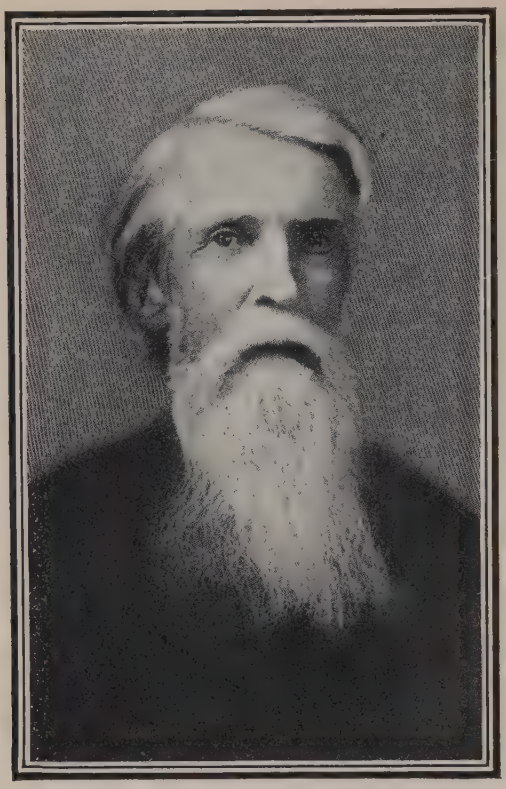
A writer whom Sir Walter Scott called the very highest genius, who was Trollope's literary master, for whom Thackeray had "the most unrestrained admiration," and to whom Froude referred all his pupils at Oxford for "a sure, liberal education," certainly deserves fuller and more sympathetic biographical treatment than he has so far received. It was to render tardy justice to Edward Bulwer,[4] first Baron Lytton, that T. H. S. Escott, an English critic, has prepared a social, personal, and political monograph

[1] West Point, Its Glamour and Its Grind. By Capt. Harold Hammond, U. S. A. New York: Cupples & Leon Company. 255 pp., ill. $1.25.

[2] The Beast. By Ben B. Lindsey and Harvey J. O'Higgins. Doubleday, Page & Co. 340 pp. $1.50.

[3] Sir Philip Sidney. By Percy Addleshaw. Putnams. 381 pp., ill. $3.50.

[4] Edward Bulwer. By T. H. S. Escott. Dutton. 348 pp., por. $2.50.



DR. HENRY H. JESSUP

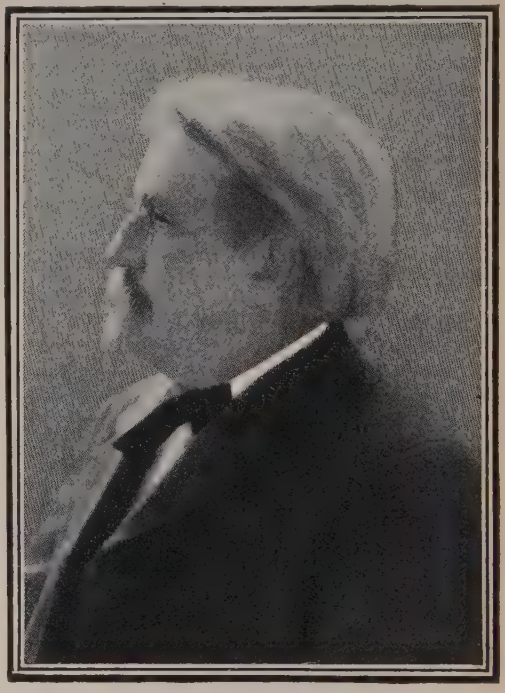
Frontispiece (reduced) from "Fifty-three Years in Syria")

which has recently appeared in England, but which is receiving some favorable criticism in this country.

The record of more than half a century of work in one mission field, set forth with the sincerity and directness of an old-time itinerant preacher, cannot fail to be interesting to all who have concern about missions, even though such a record be strung out over 832 pages, and though its venerable author declares that in the writing of it he has grown tired of the story and of himself. Dr. Henry H. Jessup, who passed to his reward late in April, was one of the most conspicuous figures of the American Presbyterian Church. He made his mark upon all Asia Minor as a missionary, a pioneer, and a statesman, and has given us in his autobiography,—"Fifty-three Years in Syria,"[1]—a stimulating narrative of adventure and achievement. In the two volumes of this work he records his experiences and reminiscences, which are really a history of the progress of Syria for the past half-century. To this work, which is copiously illustrated, Dr. James S. Dennis, the well-known authority on missions, has written a sympathetic introduction.

The life story of a woman whose name, without standing for great eminence or sensational appeal, has been a household word for years in many parts of the country, comes to us in "Marion Harland's Autobiography."[2] Mary Virginia Terhune has been known by her pen-name of Marion Harland for almost half a century for her writings on various household matters and subjects of appeal to women and young girls.

The title chosen for Mr. George Cary Eggleston's autobiography,—"Recollections of a Varied Life,"[3]—is an unusually apt one. Mr. Eggleston is known to the present-day public as an editor and a novelist whose activities for many years have centered in and around New York. He began life, however, in Indiana when that State was a part of our frontier, and was the original "Hoosier Schoolmaster" from whom his brother Edward caught the suggestion of his most popular book. Later Mr. George Cary Eggleston practiced law in Virginia and served in the Confederate army. After the war he came to New York, obtained an editorial position on the staff of the New York



GEORGE CARY EGGLESTON

(Author of "Recollections of a Varied Life")

Independent in the days of Theodore Tilton, was for six years literary editor of the New York *Evening Post* in Bryant's time, edited the *Commercial Advertiser* (now the *Globe*) under Parke Godwin, and for eleven years was an editorial writer for the *World*, while more recently he has been a successful writer of stories for young and old. Mr. Eggleston's style is terse, nervous, and journalistic. The sense of propor-

[1] Fifty-three Years in Syria. By Henry H. Jessup. Fleming H. Revell Company. 2 vols., 832 pp., ill. $5.

[2] Marion Harland's Autobiography. Harpers. 498 pp. $2.

[3] Recollections of a Varied Life. By George Cary Eggleston. Holt. 354 pp., por. $2.75.

THE LATE SENATOR O. H. PLATT, OF CONNECTICUT

tion rarely fails him, and he writes with unusual discrimination and judgment.

It is a wholesome thing to have such a career as that of "An Old-Fashioned Senator"[1] (Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut), presented to the reading public as a reminder that mere brilliancy of mind and fluency of speech are not the only qualities that spell success in public life. The personality of the Connecticut Senator was less known to the public than those of some of his contemporaries, but perhaps no one of them left a more permanent stamp on our national legislation than did he. As the author of the famous "Platt Amendment," his influence has remained and will remain long after his death. Mr. Coolidge was formerly Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, and was closely associated with Senator Platt during several years.

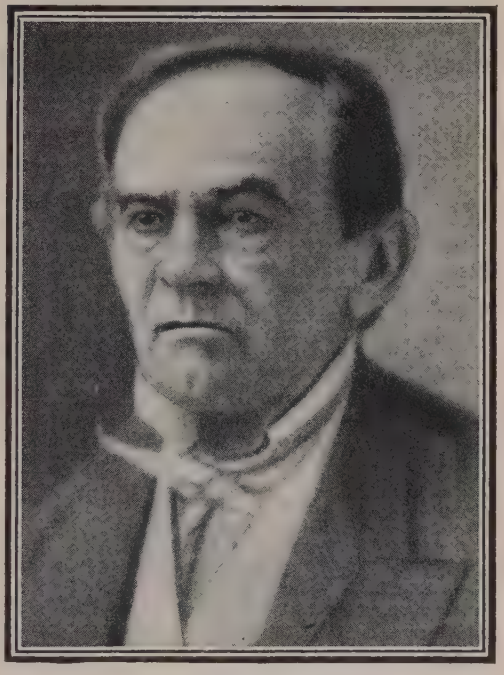
In "The Book of Daniel Drew,"[2] Mr. Bouck White offers "a glimpse of the Fisk-Gould-Tweed régime from the inside." This is perhaps the first attempt ever made to tell this dramatic story from the point of view of the characters themselves. Whether in fact it is just the story that Daniel Drew himself would have told is open to question, but at any rate it is a narrative that has appealed to Mr. Bouck White as essentially true to fact. We must, of course, not take too seriously the literary device which Mr. White employs to tell his story, and the temptation to satire is so strong that at times Mr. White gives way to it with disastrous results to the consistency of the supposed autobiographical record. Yet, on the whole, it tells in an interesting way a great many of the things that actually happened in the days of the "Erie war" in the late '60s, and explains in a fairly logical manner the reasons why they happened.

[1] An Old-Fashioned Senator: Orville H. Platt. By Louis A. Coolidge. Putnam. 655 pp., ill. $3.

[2] The Book of Daniel Drew. By Bouck White. Doubleday, Page & Co. 423 pp. $1.50.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Mr. George Cary Eggleston, whose "Recollections" are noticed on the opposite page, is the author of a two-volume "History of the Confederate War."[3] As explained in his "Recollections," Mr. Eggleston, though a native of Indiana, was himself a soldier in the Confederate army from the beginning to the end of the war. Having lived in New York for most of the time since the close of the war, and having had close and intimate personal association with many leaders on the Union side, Mr. Eggleston has been able to look back at the great conflict from other points of view than his own. His treatment of the causes and conduct of the Civil War is therefore divested of partisanship. It cannot be expected, of course, that all participants in the struggle, especially those from the North, will agree in every particular with Mr. Eggleston's analysis. Yet we believe that the general verdict will be that as a historian his attitude is remarkably free from prejudice. Perhaps no living survivor of the Confederate army is better equipped by study and personal knowledge than Mr. Eggleston to write such a history. The book is free from technical detail, the style being crisp, terse, and never wearisome.



DANIEL DREW
(The financier whose "diary" has been published)

Prof. Edward Elliott, of Princeton, has hit upon a new method of presenting American constitutional history. In his "Biographical Story of the Constitution"[4] he deals with

[3] The History of the Confederate War. By George Cary Eggleston. New York: Sturgis & Walton Company. 2 vols., 802 pp., ill. $4.

[4] The Biographical Story of the Constitution. By Edward G. Elliott. Putnam. 400 pp. $2.

HUGH O'DONNELL

(Author of "History of the Irish Parliamentary Situation")

many questions of constitutional interpretation that have at different times played important parts in our national history. His theory is that, since these questions have, as he expresses it, been thought out between men the struggle may best be pictured through the lives of some of the more conspicuous of these contestants. The introduction of this personal element undoubtedly adds to the popular interest in the subject. No two students would agree as to the place to be assigned each particular contestant in the general scale of importance, and it is possible that in adopting this method of treatment there is danger of neglecting or slighting the economic and social forces that have been at work in the development of the Constitution. But making allowance for these difficulties, there is still much to be gained from any presentation of the subject which makes clear the relationship of the written Constitution to the actual national life.

The seventh volume of Professor McMaster's "History of the People of the United States"[1] covers the decade of the '40s,—the period of radical humanitarian movements, curious social experimentation, the rise and concentration of anti-slavery sentiment, the free-soil movement, and westward expansion. All these topics are dealt with by Professor McMaster after the method made familiar in his earlier volumes. The work is based almost wholly on contemporary sources, chiefly newspaper files. The present volume reveals a condition of national ferment, in the years 1841-50, which we can with difficulty realize in our time. All sorts of "isms" flourished in those years as never before or since. It was a decade of experiments.

[1] History of the People of the United States. Vol. VII. By John Bach McMaster. Appletons. 641 pp. $2.50.

IRISH HISTORY

Just at this time when Mr. John Redmond's control of the British Parliamentary situation apparently promises so much for Ireland's future, and almost at the same moment as *Blackwood's Magazine* published the admission of Sir Robert Anderson that he wrote the notorious articles on "Parnellism and Crime," which appeared in the London *Times* back in 1887, we receive from the press Mr. Hugh O'Donnell's "History of the Irish Parliamentary Situation."[2] This two-volume work is a history, giving details of the Parliamentary situation in Great Britain as it related to Irish affairs between 1870 and 1885, the first volume treating of "Butt and Parnell, Nationhood and Anarchy" and the second "Parnell and His Lieutenants, Complicity and Betrayal." There is also an "epilogue to the present day." The history of Ireland's parliamentary struggle for independence Mr. O'Donnell would divide into three periods, each characterized by what have been popular political slogans: (1) "But for the English, Ireland would be a nation"; (2) "But for the Irish, Ireland would be a nation"; (3) "But for the Irish-Americans, Ireland would be a nation." Mr. O'Donnell, formerly M.P. for Galway and ex-member of the Council of the Home Rule League of Ireland, is one of the few Irish political leaders who have kept the confidence and respect of Britons as well as of Irishmen. In this work he writes as "a Nationalist who maintains the whole of the rights of my country, but who equally recognizes that Englishmen are patriots and that through causes that can hardly be called Irish freedom of speech and opinion is more frequently found outside of Ireland than within it."

The second volume of a rather ambitious work,—already referred to in these pages,—entitled "Ireland and Her People,"[3] treats a group of famous Irish men and women, including Father Mathew, Alexander Campbell, Michael Davitt, Michael Dwyer, Robert Emmet, Henry Grattan, William O'Brien, Lord Charles Russell, Nahum Tate, Richard Steele, and Jonathan Swift. The work is illustrated with full-page portraits.

The story of "Robert Emmet's Wooing,"[4] with rather meager description, but full of more or less apocryphal dialogue, by Edgar C. Blum, appears at the same time.

President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, was last year commissioned by his organization to go abroad as special representative to the British Trades Union Congress and the International Congress of Trades Unions, and to look into economic conditions in Europe. He traveled through England, Holland, Belgium, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. In a volume just published by the Harpers[5] Mr. Gompers records the observations made on this journey. He tells about labor, wages, class feeling, social standing, and free speech in the va-

[2] The History of the Irish Parliamentary Party, 1870-1890. By F. Hugh O'Donnell. Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols., 1002 pp., ill. $5.

[3] Ireland and Her People. Edited by Thomas W. H. Fitzgerald. Chicago: Fitzgerald Book Company. Vol. II. 430 pp., ill. $4.

[4] Robert Emmet's Wooing. By Edgar C. Blum. New York: Cochrane Publishing Company. 142 pp., ill. $1.

[5] Labor in Europe and America. By Samuel Gompers. Harpers. 287 pp. $2.

rious countries. That Mr. Gompers returned to America an optimist is made clear in his concluding paragraph, in which, while he admits that all peoples may be on the way to universal brotherhood, he declares that in the procession America is first.

Another close observer of modern social conditions, Mr. Charles Edward Russell, has recently made a study of the same matters that have come under Mr. Gompers' observation. In his little book, "Why I Am a Socialist,"[1] Mr. Russell describes very graphically many phases of our industrial life which have occasioned discontent both here and abroad. But he does not look for a remedy in any form of trade-unionism; in his view the only way out is through the general adoption of the principles of socialism.

Some reflections by Mr. William Allen White on the subject of American democracy are set forth in his new book, "The Old Order Changeth."[2] Mr. White represents that section of American public opinion which finds expression in the so-called "insurgent" movement within the Republican party. His book, however, is in no sense a text-book of Republican insurgency, although it deals in a general way with many of the problems which have led to division in the Republican ranks, particularly in the Middle West. While frank and unrestrained in his delineation of certain modern tendencies in our national life, Mr. White is optimistic in his conclusions and unshaken in his confidence that the problems of to-day will be solved as have those of the past, and that American democracy will meet the issue.

Another student of economic and political conditions, Dr. Frederic C. Howe, of Cleveland, gives us in "Privilege and Democracy in America"[3] a clever exposition and defense of one of the specific remedies now offered to the American people for the ills to which modern society is heir. This remedy is the single tax, advocated a generation ago by Henry George and still accepted by a small but intellectually brave and vigorous body of adherents who have kept the faith, despite the rapid growth of socialism, down to the present time.

Various addresses by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, United States Commissioner of Education, have been collected and published under the title "Government by Influence."[4] Most of these addresses naturally deal with some phase or phases of education. Some of them had already appeared in print.

LITERATURE AND THE DRAMA

Among the works of pure literature, the publication of which marks the present season, the fourth volume of the Cambridge History of English Literature[5] is perhaps the most noteworthy. This work, which is edited by Dr. A. W. Ward and Mr. A. R. Waller, is the most scholarly of the histories of English literature undertaken during the past decade. The present volume considers the period beginning with Sir Thomas North and passing immediately to Sir Walter Raleigh and ending with Michael Drayton, the last chapter being on the foundation of libraries in England.

In two volumes in the Reader's Library, Harpers have brought out a collection of examples of style and construction offered by "The Great English Short-Story Writers."[6] There are introductory essays and notes by William J. Dawson and Coningsby W. Dawson.

CHARLES EDWARD RUSSELL
(Author of "Why I Am a Socialist")

In these days, when it may be said that the great majority of Americans are firmly convinced that poetic genius bears a distinct pathological relation to insanity, it is refreshing to read the mature views of such a sane, scholarly critic as Prof. George Edward Woodberry. In his latest work, "The Inspiration of Poetry,"[7] Professor Woodberry contends that poetic genius is characterized not by an unbalanced or diseased reason or by any temporary aberration but by "a suspension of reason in favor of spiritual emotion."

To set forth "something of the debt which literature owes to religion for its subjects, its language, its antagonisms, as well as in many cases for the training of its writers," as well as to suggest "the debt which religion as indis-

[1] Why I Am a Socialist. By Charles Edward Russell. New York: George H. Doran Company. 301 pp. $1.50.

[2] The Old Order Changeth. By William Allen White. Macmillan. 266 pp. $1.25.

[3] Privilege and Democracy in America. By Frederic C. Howe. Scribners. 315 pp. $1.50.

[4] Government by Influence. By Elmer E. Brown. Longmans, Green & Co. 245 pp. $1.35.

[5] The Cambridge History of English Literature. Vol. IV. Edited by A. W. Ward and A. R. Waller. Putnams. 658 pp. $2.50.

[6] The Great English Short-Story Writers. By William J. and Coningsby W. Dawson. Harpers. 2 vols., 656 pp. $2.

[7] The Inspiration of Poetry. By George E. Woodberry. Macmillan. 232 pp. $1.25.

putably owes to literature for the extension of its influence and the humanizing of its ideals,"—this is the text of Mr. Edward Mortimer Chapman's fine, scholarly essay on "English Literature in Account with Religion."[1] "Wherever," says Mr. Chapman, "the mystery of life and death asserts itself a door stands open to the entrance of religion, and the material of literature is ready."

Among recently issued books of poems which deserve special mention for the high literary character of their contents are: "Poems," by Robert Underwood Johnson (Century); "The Comfort of the Hills," by S. Weir Mitchell (Century); "The Enchanted Island and Other Poems," by Alfred Noyes (Stokes); "The Poet of Galilee," by William Ellery Leonard (Huebsch); "The Frozen Grail and Other Poems,"—addressed to Peary and his men,—by Elsa Barker (Duffield); "Russian Lyrics and Cossack Songs," done into English verse by Martha G. D. Bianchi (Duffield); "The Younger Choir," a collection of verses by "new" poets, with an introduction by Edwin Markham (New York: Mood's Publishing Company), and "Erdklänge," a book of modern German lyrics, by Sebastian Frank Wendland (published by the author).

A study of the technique of the drama,[2] not intended for those who want to write plays but for those who wish to learn how plays are written now and how they have been written in the past, is presented to us by Prof. Brander Matthews (Columbia). It is a noteworthy contribution in a special field of interpretation in which Professor Matthews has long been recognized as a leader. All the masterpieces of the dramatic art, he insists, were originally written to be performed by actors in a theater and before an audience of the dramatist's own contemporaries. The volume is dedicated to Dr. Jules Jusserand, the French Ambassador to the United States, because, in the writer's opinion, Frenchmen have always excelled in the art of the stage.

The same thesis is set forth with more specific illustration in terms of modern stagecraft by Clayton Hamilton in his "Theory of the Theater."[3] Mr. Hamilton dedicates his volume to Professor Matthews, and throughout his pages emphasizes and illustrates the theory set forth in the book noticed above. He has had considerable experience himself as a playwright and dramatist critic and knows whereof he speaks.

A very suggestive and useful collection of the best humorous passages from Mark Twain's works is published under the title "Travels at Home by Mark Twain."[4] It consists of the best portions selected from "Roughing It" and "Life on the Mississippi," arranged and edited by Mr. Percival Chubb, who has become very well known as a literary editor of taste and discrimination. Most of the gems of Mr. Clemens' writings are represented in this collection.

[1] English Literature in Account with Religion. By Edward M. Chapman. Houghton Mifflin. 578 pp. $2.

[2] A Study of the Drama. By Brander Matthews. Houghton Mifflin. 320 pp., ill. $1.50.

[3] The Theory of the Theater. By Clayton Hamilton. Holt. 248 pp. $1.50.

[4] Travels at Home by Mark Twain. Harpers. 143 pp., ill. 50 cents.

EDWARD MORTIMER CHAPMAN
(Author of "English Literature in Account with Religion")

TWO BOOKS OF REFERENCE

Many topics of current interest and importance are treated in the "New International Year Book,"[5] which covers the year 1909. Among these are the movement of financial recovery which gained great strength during the year, the record of American agriculture for the most prosperous year in its history, the analysis of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, the change of Presidential administration, the Custom House frauds, and many developments in the field of science. This publication is now the only annual cyclopedia that we have in this country, and we are glad to note that the editors are giving increased attention to the preparation of articles of permanent value and are securing notable contributions by specialists in their respective fields.

A scholarly, comprehensive editing of "Modern Constitutions"[6] has been accomplished by Walter Fairleigh Dodd and published by the University of Chicago Press. The two volumes that make up this work include the fundamental laws of twenty-two of the most prominent and "modern" countries of the world, with complete historical and bibliographical notes. This work, it would seem, must form an essential part of all future libraries on comparative constitutional law.

[5] The New International Year Book, 1909. Dodd, Mead & Co. 792 pp., ill. $3.

[6] Modern Constitutions. By Walter Fairleigh Dodd. University of Chicago Press. 685 pp. $5.42.